EARLY MARINES IN THE EASTERN HEMISPHERE.

Material and Sources
of
Chapter I, Volume I,

History of the United States Marine Corps

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First Edition,
JULY 14, 1931.

FORENOTE

This compilation is not the final manuscript of this Chapter but represents only material and sources upon which it will be based. If details concerning the participation of the Navy and Army in any operation or incident described herein do not appear, such omission occurs only because it is impracticable in a history of this character to set forth more than the work of the Marines themselves. To do more than this would extend the history beyond a practical scope and size. In many of the operations described, the Navy or the Army, or both, have been present in greater strength than the Marines, and full credit is here given for their splendid achievements.

The following form of citation is suggested if it is desired to cite, either in published works, or manuscript, any information contained herein:-

(McClellan, Hist., U.S.M.C., 1st ed., I,
Ch. I, p--)

CHAPTER I.

EARLY MARINES IN THE EASTERN HEMISPHERE.

For purposes of convenience the earth has been divided into the Eastern and Western Hemispheres. Somewhere on this earth there is the spot where Man first appeared. Somewhere is the place where the first civilization developed. There is no absolute certainty whether these two localities are in the Western or in the Eastern Hemisphere. An impenetrable curtain has been dropped between those days - far behind what now we term ancient times - and today. The location of the place where Man first appeared or of the vicinity where the first civilization sprang up, will never be learned, leagues of salt water may cover them. They may be under a torrid desert or on a mountain top.

We are certain that from the day that boats first carried fighting-men on the rivers, lakes and oceans, there were men who performed duties now assigned to Marines. These Maritime Soldiers may have first appeared in either of the hemispheres but oblivion has submerged all information about them.[1]

The recorded history of man-kind, even of those civilizations whose records go farthest back into antiquity, covers only a small fraction of the period of many thousands of years since man as a distinct species first appeared upon the earth.[1] The first recorded data we have today of Soldiers of the Sea appears in the myths, legends and histories of the Eastern

Hemisphere. Accordingly this first chapter will be devoted to the Marines of that hemisphere.

Marines have always been Sea Soldiers. They have served on fresh water rivers and lakes as well as salt water seas and oceans. They may have been attached to the war vessels - private and public - or they may have served on board such vessels as a mobile expeditionary force. The effect of the expedition may have been secured by carrying a regularly organized expedition of soldiers accustomed to the sea, or by augmenting the strength of the regular detachments of Sea Soldiers attached to the ships. The origin of the Marines lies in expeditionary service.[2]

A study of history brings the student to the conclusion that whether a soldier is a Marine depends upon the character of duty such soldier performs and not upon the name given to him. With this information before us we will see that there have been Marines from the first date that fighting men served on ships or in expeditions of a naval status.

It is a difficult task to express, in a few words, the story of how the Soldier-of-the-Navy developed through the ages. The Assyrians overlap the Egyptians and they in turn the Greeks. All three are mingled with the Phoenicians and Persians. There were many Greek or Hellenic States, and the political entity of Sparta adds to our confusion. The Romans,

Syracusans, Carthaginians appear and then back into the picture again float the Egyptians. Few naval historians even mention the early Scandinavians, Celts, Japanese, Chinese and Coreans but a history of the ancient Marines must include them.[3]

Boats and ships came before any fighting afloat. The first boats were constructed very early in the Neolithic stage of culture. They were no more than trees and floating wood, used to assist the imperfect natural swimming powers of men.[4] In some places they were merely rafts or hulks of trees made hollow.[5] With the development of tools and a primitive carpentry, the period of boats arrived.[4] Men in Egypt and Mesopotamia developed a primitive type of basketwork boat. Skins and hides on a wicker framework also were used in the construction of ancient boats. Sumerian boats and ships appeared on the Euphrates and Tigris as early as 7,000 B.C. There is evidence of a fully developed sea life 6,000 years ago at the eastern end of the Mediterranean. Predynastic Neolithic Egyptian representations of Nile ships were capable of carrying elephants. The art of rowing can first be discerned on the Nile about 2,500 B.C.[6] Sails were also used by the Egyptians, Phoenicians and Greeks.[7] However, "in the eyes of a Greek, the sail was a symbol rather of flight than of fighting."[7]

The whole of maritime warfare naturally falls into three

periods: (1) the period of the galley or of oars "beginning in prehistoric times and culminating in the year 1571 at the Battle of Lepanto: (2) the period of the "great ship," or "ship of the line," or period of sails, which was established in 1588 with the campaign of the Great Armada and reached its highest development at Trafalgar in 1805; and (3) the period in which we now live, the period of steam.[8] To these might be added a future period, in which a composite air-surface-sub craft will be able to fly, float on the surface, and navigate under-neath the surface.

Practically all of the translators and historians use the word "Marines" for the soldiers of ancient times who performed the duty carried on by the Marines of today.[9]

Thucydides wrote that among the Ancients at first there was no different ranks of seamen, but the same persons were employed in those duties, which were in later ages performed by "rowers, mariners, and soldiers." In other words, when a battle ensued the rowers would drop their oars for weapons.[10] These composite Marine-seaman-oarsman were described by Homer when he wrote that "each ship had fifty rowers that were skilled well in the shooting art."[10] "Afterwards," continued Thucydides, "when the art of naval war began to be improved" it "became customary to furnish their ships of war with the three following sorts of men:" (1) Epibatai, or Marines; (2) Nautai, or sailors; and (3) Eretai, or slaves who rowed.[11]

Greek Marines were regularly paid. Boeckh wrote that:

"There were in a trireme two hundred men to be paid; and, indeed, not navigators or sailors alone, but the Marines were also included. For there is no mention to be found of a separate payment for them, and when the ancients speak of the pay of a vessel's crew, the Marines are evidently comprised among the seamen."[12]

The Epibatai or Marines "were armed after the same manner with those designed for land-service, only there seems always to have been a greater number of heavy-armed men than was thought necessary by land; for we find in Plutarch, that, (of the eighteen Marines employed to fight upon the hatches) of Themistocles' ships, only four were light-armed. Indeed, it highly imported them to fortify themselves in the best manner they could, since there was no possibility of retiring or changing places, but every man was obliged to fight hand-to-hand, and maintain his ground until the battle was ended; wherefore their whole armor, though in form usually the same with that employed in land-service, yet exceeded it in strength and firmness."[13]

The normal crew of the Athenian trireme consisted of 10 Marines, 17 sailors, and 170 rowers. These numbers included the petty and non-commissioned officers but were exclusive of the Trierarch and the four subaltern commissioned officers, who brought the ship's company up to a total of 202.[14]

The Marines were used for boarding the enemy ships, for repelling boarders, or for forming a mobile landing force to

operate in the enemy's territory. Greek history furnishes numerous instances of such mobile expeditionary forces.[15]

Their numbers varied in accordance with the character and object of the expedition, on which they were embarked. Generally speaking, in proportion as the expedition was strictly naval in character, the smallest was the number of Marines on board the vessels. Thus at Salamis (480 B.C.) when the system of land warfare at sea still largely prevailed, the number of Marines attached to each warship was eighteen of whom four were archers and the rest heavy-armed; while at Naupactus (429 B.C.), half a century later, when naval tactics had advanced, the total number on each ship had been reduced to ten, which, however, was sufficient to repel boarders during the time in which the warship was in contact with its rammed foe. When the object of the expedition was military, as well as naval, often as many as fifty Marines to a vessel were embarked on the Greek warship.[15]

Soldiers for Sea Service appeared in the gray dawn of the historic morning. We perceive them shrouded in the legendary mists. As far back as the eye can reach in legend and history there can be seen a group of men performing the duties that are today performed by Marines.

Jason may be said to have led the first expedition of maritime soldiers when he set out in his fifty-oared Argo to find the Golden Fleece.[16]

Then came the Trojan War with its "Wooden Horse" and

its many heroic fighters who served on expeditionary duty.[17] These, and no doubt many more other early expeditions, were carried on with typical Marine spirit.

The earliest peoples that had warships were probably the Cretans and Egyptians.[18]

Minos, the Island-King of Crete is credited with being the first to establish a supremacy over the AEgean Sea when he cleared it of pirates, and established order and security. Thucydides wrote that "Minos is the first to whom tradition ascribes the possession of a navy."[19] Under Minos, a redoubtable sea power and rich civilization flourished for unknown centuries. There was intercourse of some kind between Crete and Egypt as early as the time of the first Egyptian Dynasty. This connection was maintained by the direct sea route across the Mediterranean. Neolithic Egyptians were familiar with the building and use of ships and it was by galleys that the Egyptians and Cretans maintained intercourse. By the end of the Third Dynasty the Egyptians, themselves, had developed a Navy capable of making the voyage direct to Crete. Sneferu, the last king of this Dynasty sent a fleet of forty ships to the Syrian coast for cedarwood."[20]

The Cretans had a period of peace of 1,000 years.[21] The Minoan Empire does not appear to have been a specially warlike one; but it believed in preparation for war from a naval standpoint.[22]

So long as the war fleet of Minos was in being, Knossos, the Minoan capital, needed no fortifications. Marines served on board the Minoan cruisers. The fleet did fail at last and this civilization passed with it. "Sea power was lost, and with it everything."[22]

About 1,400 B. C., Knossos, was sacked and burnt. The final blow came about 1,000 B. C., when the capital was destroyed, probably by the "barbaric Greeks."[23]

While we are thus engrossed in the naval affairs of the Mediterranean, the Chinese, Corean and Japanese peoples were participating in many incidents of navigation, commerce and naval war. A civilization existed in China by at least 2,000 B.C., and being a maritime state there were Chinese war junks, manned by sailors and Soldiers of the Sea at an early date. Duhalde writes that "the naval force of the Emperor Tsin Chi-hoang, which according to the Chinese histories sailed as far as Bengal, must needs have made the name" of China "famous among the Indians," and this fame must have been passed on through Persia and Egypt to Europe so that by 230 B.C., China was known of there.[24] Other historians state that Greece and Rome knew nothing of China.

The Japanese were also a maritime people. They must have used boats to cross from Corea to the islands in their first migration, when they invaded the Island Kingdom,

much as the Saxons and other Teutonic tribes entered Britain. The earliest Japanese history, like that of China and India, is almost exclusively mythic and legendary. Japanese national history begins with the Emperor Jimmu, who, in 660 B.C., built a fleet on the Inland Sea by means of which he reached Osaka and consolidated the Empire. The earliest of Japanese fighting men were as much at home on the sea as on land and that many of them served as do the Marines of today can be well understood.[25]

All the time the Egyptians had been declining, the Phoenicians had been progressing.[26] The Phoenicians were the first people within the knowledge of written history to make extensive use of armed sea power.[27] They were great seamen because they were great traders. "Two-banked warships were certainly in use in Phoenicia about 700 B.C., for Phoenician warships are represented with two banks of oars in Assyrian sculpture of that date."[28] The Sea Soldiers found a place on board all of the warships of the Phoenicians, as well as in all the expeditions sent out.

The Phoenician men of Tyre and Sidon, by the Tenth Century B.C., had pushed to every part of the Mediterranean. They founded Carthage before 800 B.C.; they passed through the Pillars of Hercules and circumnavigated Africa; they visited England for tin and discovered the Madeira and Canary Islands; but their glories passed and they yielded in turn to Egypt, Assyria, Babylon, and as sailors and Marines under the Persian,

they fought the Greeks.[29]

The Assyrians under Shalmaneser IV, marched into Phoenicia in 725 B.C. They could make no impression upon the Island of Tyre since they had no navy, and therefore made peace. A second campaign followed. Certain Phoenician renegade cities engaged to supply Shalmaneser with a Navy; and a fleet was collected and equipped, which consisted of 60 ships, manned by a combination of Phoenicians and Assyrians.[30] The Tyrian fleet, however, so despised the Assyrians that they met their fleet of 60 with but 12 vessels and decisively defeated them.[30]

The earliest Greeks appear in the dim light before the dawn of history, say about 1,500 B.C. They came into conflict with and mixed with the civilization represented by the Cretes of Knossos.[31]

The fall of Cretan civilization and dominacy was followed by confusion out of which emerged many states, the leading ones being Miletus and Phocaea. The influence of Miletus spread east and that of Phocaea spread west. Herodotus states that "the Phocaeans were the first of the Greeks who performed long voyages," and that they used "the long <u>penteconter.</u>" About the beginning of the Sixth Century B.C., Phocaea's Navy defeated the combined fleets of Carthage and Eutruria in the naval battle of Corsica.[32]

Corinth had the strongest fleet of the States of Continental Greece. Thucydides wrote that "the Corinthians are

said first to have managed naval matters most nearly to the present fashion, and triremes to have been built at Corinth first in Greece."[33] Torr wrote that "according to Thucydides the first ships that were built by the Greeks for use in warfare were built about 700 B.C., at Corinth and Samos."[34]

The "earliest naval engagement on record [in Greek history] is that between the Corinthians and Corcyraeans" about 645 B.C., wrote Thucydides.[35]

Thucydides wrote that the Ionians also had a large navy in the time of Cyrus I, and Cambyses, of Persia.[36]

About the middle of the Sixth Century, B.C., both Miletus and Phocaea were surpassed by another naval power - Samos.[37]

The Greek sea-coast cities of Asia Minor, which Cyrus the Great had added to the Persian Empire in 545 B.C., revolted in 499 B.C., in what is known as the Ionic Revolt, and the operations resulting were largely naval in character.[38]

The decisive naval Battle of Lade was fought in 497 B.C., off Lade, near Miletus. "The Persians themselves were not at all acquainted with maritime affairs," so they employed the Phoenicians and others. Six hundred Phoenician vessels in the Persian service met and defeated three hundred and fifty-three Asiatic Greek triremes. Each of the Greek ships carried a detachment of forty armed "picked men" serving as Marines.[39] Each Persian vessel "had on board, besides native soldiers, thirty fighting men, who were either Persians, Medes, or Sacans."[40]

While the "Ionian Fleet was still assembled at Lade" the Marines and sailors were harangued. The Ionian rowers exercised maneuvers, "while the Marines were held under arms." There were 100 Chian ships in this battle, having "each of them forty armed citizens, and those picked men on board."[41]

The Persians upon discovering the Ionian Fleet off Miletus, immediately attacked it. Many of the Samian vessels treacherously retired; but "of those who remained and fought, none were so rudely handled as the Chians, who displayed prodigies of valor, and disdained to play the part of cowards."[41] The Greeks were severely defeated. Asia Minor fell under Persian rule again.[42]

"Large bodies of Epibatae [or Marines] were also carried in transports ready to be landed where necessary for cooperation with the fleet."[43] Thus in the year 497 B.C., over 2,400 years ago, Marines were fulfillingthe major war mission assigned to the American Marines of today - to support the fleet by supplying it with a highly trained, fully equipped, expeditionary force for the shore operations which are necessary for the effective prosecution by the fleet of its major mission, which is to gain control of the sea and thereby open the sea lanes for the movement of the Army overseas.[44]

In 492 B.C., a large army under Mardonius was sent out by Darius. It was "a vast body of men, some fit for sea, others for land service." He entered Thrace in August, accompanied by a powerful fleet along the shore. The fleet was

wrecked and his army defeated.[45]

In 490 B.C., a second expedition of 600 ships and 110,000 men was organized. In the Spring "the troops were received by the ships of war; after which the whole fleet, amounting in all to 600 triremes, made sail for Ionia." This Army was beaten on the plain of Marathon, but it re-embarked, and as they commanded the sea, by a rapid sail they almost captured Athens by surprise. The Persians then abandoned the Greek coast and returned to Asia.[46]

During the decade that followed the Battle of Marathon, the Persians assembled large military and naval forces in the region around the Hellespont. The sea forces of Xerxes, son of Darius who had died in the great invasion of 480 B.C., according to Herodotus, amounted to 4,207 ships, 1,207 triremes and 3,000 lesser vessels, including transports for horses, "manned by 481,400 sailors of subject nations and 36,210 Persians serving as Marines."[47] This large number of vessels was furnished by Phoenicia, "Syrians of Palestine," Egypt and many other states, while the Greeks of Thrace in addition furnished 120 ships. There were 1,800,000 land soldiers, or a total land and sea force of 2,317,610.[47] To this force must be added that raised in Europe - about 324,000.

Themistocles realized that Athens had to be converted "from a land-power into a sea-power," if this huge force was to be defeated. He bent all his efforts to create a navy and persuaded the Athenians to leave off dividing the proceeds of

the silver mines among themselves and to employ the money in building ships.[48] Under the inspiration of Themistocles, the "Father of the Greek Navy," there was soon assembled a fleet of 271 ships and 62 penteconters. Themistocles was the soul and moving spirit of this armament but a Spartan, named Euryviades, commanded. In 480 B.C., the Greek fleet proceeded to Artemisium to guard the flank and rear of Leonidas' small land force at the Pass of Thermopylae.[49]

Preceding the naval battle of Artemisium there occurred a preliminary skirmish between three of Euryviades' ships and the Persians that produced a Marine hero and a Marine martyr. Three Greek vessels were pushed forward along the coast of Thessally to watch the Persian fleet. It was here that the first blood was shed in this memorable contest. Ten Persian ships met the three Greek vessels. One Greek vessel, an AEginetan, resisted vigorously, and one of her hoplites, Pythes, son of Ischenous, "fought with desperate bravery, and fell covered with wounds." He was the hero. Herodotus wrote that "after the ship was taken this man continued to resist, and did not cease fighting till he fell quite covered with wounds. The Persians who served as men-at-arms in the squadron, finding that he was not dead, but still breathed, and being very anxious to save his life, since he had behaved so valiantly, dressed his wounds with myrrh, and bound them up with bandages of cotton. Then, when they were returned to their own station, they displayed their prisoner admiringly

to the whole host, and behaved towards him with much kindness; but all the rest of the ship's crew were treated merely as slaves."[50]

The Marine martyr was one named Leo or Leon. He served on the first of the two vessels captured. He was a Sea Soldier of imposing stature and very beautiful. He was the first captive made by the Persians. Herodotus says that the Persians "took the handsomest of the men-at-arms and drew him to the prow of the vessel, where they sacrificed him," according to custom.[51]

The naval battle of Artemisium fought in 480 B.C., left both fleets disabled, and furnished the prelude to the great naval battle of Salamis, whither the Greeks retired, followed by the Persians.[52]

To oppose the massive land and sea forces of the Persians,[53] the Greeks now gathered together about 378 ships, without counting penteconters.[54]

Then came the Naval Battle of Salamis in which the wily Themistocles induced Xerxes to fight in the narrow strait that separates the Island of Salamis from the mainland.[55]

At dawn on the day of the battle, the men-at-arms of the Greek Fleet were assembled on shore and harangued. "The best of all was that of Themistocles, who, throughout, contrasted what was noble with what was base, and bade that in all that came within the range of man's nature always to make choice of the nobler part."[56]

"Plutarch gives the number of Marines on board each Greek trireme at the Battle of Salamis, as eighteen, four of whom were archers and the rest heavy-armed."[57]

At sunrise the Persian Fleet advanced from the south-east into Salamis Harbor. With no room to maneuver the Persians were soon defeated. Grappling irons locked the opposing galleys, movable gangways or planks were used for boarding; Sharp beaks were destructive; and the Battle turned into a hand-to-hand struggle.[58]

The Naval Battle of Mycale, followed in 479 B.C.,[59] and the victory of the Greeks was complete, with the defeat of the Persians in the land battle of Plataea on the same day.

In the account of the Battle of Plataea where Mardonius, son of Gobryas, the great military leader of the Persians, was slain, and the choice of the Persian troops routed, there is an instance related where the military and naval training are curiously blended in the person of the Athenian Sophanes. "He wore," wrote Herodotus, "an iron anchor, fastened to the belt which secured his breastplate by a brazen chain; and this, when he came near the enemy, he threw out; to the intent that, when they made their charge, it might be impossible for him to be driven from his post; as soon, however, as the enemy fled, his wont was to take up his anchor and join the pursuit." Another account by Herodotus states that "Sophanes, instead of having an iron anchor fastened to his breastplate, bore the

device of an anchor upon his shield, which he never allowed to rest, but made to run round continually."[60]

In 468 B.C., the Persian naval forces became active again and a fleet of 350 Phoenician galleys was assembled in that year off the mouth of the Eurymedon. Three hundred Athenian and Allied galleys decisively defeated them. On the same day a landing party from the fleet put to rout a large force of Persian Infantry.[61]

"The greatest achievement of former times was the Persian War; yet even this was speedily decided in two battles by sea and two by land." The Peloponnesian War however was a protracted struggle, and attended by calamities such as Hellas had never known."[62]

At the beginning of the Peloponnesian Wars, Greece had 300 seaworthy ships. "From the middle of the fifty century twenty triremes were annually in commission," in the Greek Navy. In the Peloponnesian War the Greek vessels carried only ten Marines. The Ram was very effective and it was felt that fewer Marines were necessary. A greek trireme carried a crew of two hundred, and of these "30 were officers, Marines, and sailors who attended the rigging."[63] During the Peloponnesian War, the average number of Marines on board the Athenian trireme was ten.[64]

The naval battle near Cheimerium was fought between Corinth on one side and Corcyra with the support of Athens on the other. Corinth had 150 ships while Corcyra possessed

110 with the support of 30 Athenian ships. The decks of both were crowded with heavy infantry, with archers and with javelinmen. The Battle "had almost the appearance of a land fight. When two ships once charged one another, it was hardly possible to part company, for the throng of vessels was dense, and the hopes of victory lay chiefly in the heavy-armed, who maintained a steady fight upon the decks, the ships meanwhile remaining motionless."[65]

In the decisive sea fight off Aegina in 458 B.C., the Athenians were victorious, capturing 70 of the enemy's ships. They landed on the Island and captured the city.[66]

In 457 B.C., 200 Athenian galleys invaded Egypt. The crews landed and won a battle. They then sailed up the Nile and besieged Memphis. "After six years' fighting the cause of the Hellenes in Egypt was lost."[67]

Thucydides tells us that six Athenian vessels under Melesander, went to Lycia and Caria "to see that Peloponnesian privateers did not establish themselves in those ports."[68]

The Athenian fleet under Phormio defeated the Peloponnesians in 429 B.C., at the Battle of Naupactus. This battle followed a lesser engagement in which the Peloponnesians lost. The victory of the Athenians dispirited the Peloponnesians and their generals harangued them. They told them the first "expedition had a military and not a naval object," and it being

their "first sea-fight" they "suffered a little from inexperience." But now with "a larger fleet" they would win. Phormio harangued his Athenians too. "Soldiers" -- was his first word - "the sea fight must of necessity be reduced to a land-fight in which numbers will tell."[69] This meant that the decision would rest on the Marines. The first stages of the engagement favored the Spartans but a counter attack by the Athenians won the battle. About ten Marines served on each of the Greek ships in these Battles.[70]

Shortly after the victory of Naupactus "the Athenian forces at Naupactus made an expedition under command of Phormio into the center of Acarnania with 400 hoplites of their own taken from the fleet and 400 Messenian hoplites," after which "they returned to their ships."[71]

In 415 B.C., Athens sent a great land and naval expedition to Sicily.[72]

The Greek expedition consisted of nearly 300 warships, transports and supply vessels, carrying about 35,000 sailors, Marines, and soldiers. "No armament so magnificent or costly had ever been sent out by any single Hellenic power," said Thucydides. "The hoplites numbered in all 5,100 of whom 1,500 were Athenians taken from the roll, and 700" served as Marines.[73]

"When the ships were manned and everything required for the voyage had been placed on board, silence was proclaimed by the sound of the trumpet, and all with one voice before setting

sail offered up the customary prayers. *** On every deck both the officers and the Marines, mingled wine in bowls, made libations from vessels of gold and silver."[74]

After a long while Nicias, who had succeeded Alcibiades in command of the Greek Fleet, led it into the Great Harbor of Syracuse in the spring of 414 B.C. The Athenian Fleet was eventually cooped up in the Great Harbor of Syracuse. The Syracuseans had become unquestionably superior at sea. They had fitted their vessels with "beaks", copying the Corinthians. The Athenians seeing the closing of the harbor resolved on one last desperate attempt to regain the sea. Practically their entire army was put on the ships; they intended to fight a land battle at sea, so to speak. Thucydides described this naval battle in vivid detail. "No previous engagement," wrote he, "had been so fierce and obstinate." The rowers worked eagerly. "The Marines, too, were full of anxiety that, when ship struck ship, the service on deck should not fall short of the rest; every one in the place assigned to him was eager to be foremost among his fellows." "All the time that another vessel was bearing down, the man on deck poured showers of javelins and arrows, and stones upon the enemy and when the two closed, the Marines fought hand to hand and endeavoured to board."[75] "The iron beaks of the opposing ships ground angrily together as the Grecian Fleet fell upon the enemy who had drawn up their vessels at the mouth of the harbor." The arrows and

darts of the Athenians did less execution than the stones slung with admirable skill by the Syracuseans.[76]

The Athenians were put to flight by the Syracuseans. Their morale was broken and their ruin complete. "Fleet and army perished from the face of the earth; nothing was saved, and of the many who went forth few returned home," wrote Thucydides. The overwhelming defeat of the Athenians at the naval battle of Syracuse started the decline and fall of the Athenian sea empire.[77]

For nine years after this defeat Athens struggled against the combined strength of Greece and the finances of Persia. Athenian naval victories were achieved but the naval power of Athens was gradually weakening under the strain. Thucydides tells us that hoplites serving as "Marines" on twenty Athenian ships stationed at Lade formed landing parties and made descents upon Cardamyle and Bolissus.[78]

With a fleet of seventy-six ships the Athenians defeated eighty-eight Peloponnesian vessels, at what is known as the Battle of Cynossema. A few days later the Athenians captured eight more enemy vessels. Again the Athenians enjoyed a naval success in the Battle off Abydos. Then came a decisive naval victory when the Athenians routed the Peloponnesians at Cyzicus. Unfortunately for Athens, she declined peace with Sparta, for with the assistance of Persian money the Peloponnesians rebuilt their fleet, and in 406 B.C. were ready to renew the struggle.

At the Battle off the Arginusae Isles, opposite Lesbos, the Athenian Fleet achieved a complete victory and once more controlled the AEgean Sea; but once again Athens refused the offer of peace from Sparta. From now on the prestige and supremacy of Athens begins to dwindle, never to again rise.[79]

In September, 405 B.C., the Peloponnesians under Lysander crushed the last Athenian fleet at Lampactus by surprise.[80]

Athens had shot her last bolt; her ships and crews were gone. She was soon besieged by land and sea. Lysander entered Piraeus and destroyed the "Long walls," the Peloponnesians celebrating with the music of flutes, "the return of liberty to Greece," in the Spring of 404 B.C. With this battle the grand epoch of Greek Naval History comes to a close.[80]

Philip of Macedon and his son Alexander both believed in control of the sea and therefore we find the Macedonian fleets sailing the seas. Due to the Nature of naval warfare the Macedonian Marines were an important part of the crews of these vessels and we also find them forming the nucleus of "expeditions." When King Philip II ascended the throne in 359 B.C., he diverted some of the Macedonian energies to the sea. In 352 he began the creation of a navy, and soon after his marauding ships threatened the commerce of the AEgean. While Philip was consolidating his empire on land he continued to increase and improve his navy. His ambitions, however, were cut short by assassination and his son, Alexander the Great,

succeeded him in 336 B.C.[81]

Alexander started with a fleet of one hundred and sixty Macedonian warships. The Persian Navy of four hundred galleys controlled the seaboards of Asia Minor, Syria and Egypt. He accordingly decided to depend upon land rather than sea to satisfy his yearnings to conquer. With land successes crowned by Issus, Alexander was enabled to march into Syria and to strike at the seat of the Persian naval power in the Phoenician cities. By early in the fourth century, B.C., Alexander had overcome all but Tyre.[81]

Alexander had the Sidonian Fleet with him as well as 120 ships of the King of Cyprus, "which gave him command of the sea."[82] Carthage sent the mother city no help. Alexander joined his galleys in pairs by the head. Grouping and connecting them with planks he thus formed a tremendous transport which he loaded with Marines and soldiers. This huge galley of galleys was then rowed close to the walls of Tyre.[83] The Tyrians finally submitted. The Perso-Phoenician naval power was now a thing of the past, and Alexander was master of the AEgean and Levantine Seas. He then started on his Asiatic conquest in August, 330 B.C.[84]

The First Punic War, between Rome and Carthage, began 264 B.C. Carthage was founded by citizens of Phoenician Tyre, early in the Ninth Century, B.C., near the site of modern Tunis.

The Carthaginians were splendid seamen and their superiority on the water enabled them to throw large armies into Sicily practically at will.

With the conquest of Italy, which Rome substantially achieved by her victory over Pyrrhus in 275 B.C., Rome changed from a purely peninsular state to a great Mediterranean power. Rome's ambitions, at first confined to land now reached out to becoming a sea power. It soon became evident that if the Carthaginians were to be driven from Sicily, Rome must command by sea as well as by land.

At the opening of the first Punic War in 264 B.C., Rome was practically without a fleet. Though the Romans possessed some merchant marine, and had employed ships of war, at times, they do not seem to have had any of the larger vessels such as the quinqueremes which the Phoenician builders constructed for the Carthaginian Navy.[85]

Maps of the period show how the Carthaginian boundaries were extending to include Mediterranean Islands south of Italy and how the Carthaginians had already conquered most of Spain.

The Carthaginians, like their ancestors at Tyre, had long been renowned for the numbers and size of their ships, the skill of their rowers and pilots, and their dexterity in practising the maneuvers which gave the trained crew the superiority over the untrained.[86]

The Navy was the source of the Carthaginian's power. It

was not, like their army, served by foreign mercenaries. The bulk of the crews was composed of citizens to whom seamanship was a life-long profession. While the Carthaginians had often suffered defeat on land, no state for a long time past had seriously disputed with them their supremacy at sea. Thus it seemed presumptious for the Romans to hope to wrest from the sea-rovers the water supremacy.[86]

The Roman Senate suddenly realized the significance of naval power and as promptly resolved upon the immediate creation of a fleet that could compete with that of Carthage. With characteristic energy the Roman government quickly converted forests into ships large enough to accomodate crews of more than four hundred men. While this construction was going on, men were taught rowing by exercising them on benches erected on the sand beach. But the Romans were wise enough to recognize that new ships manned by raw recruits who were strangers to the "sea habit" would not constitute a Navy that could cope with the seasoned fleet of their opponents whose crews had spent their lives afloat. But, believing in the vast superiority of the legionary over every other kind of fighting man, Roman strategists sought a solution of the difficult problem that confronted them wherein the legionary would be an element. They estimated that their only hope lay in bringing the legionary to bear upon the Carthaginian sailor.[87]

The solution was made possible by the naval constructor

who invented the corvus (crow) which consisted of an additional mast stepped on the forecastle with a gangway, or bridge, pivoted on it so that it could be swung quickly to either side or over the bow, i.e., could be moved in a horizontal arc of about one hundred and eighty degrees.[87] It was about 24 feet long.[87] The outer end of the gangway was rigged with a heavy, sharp prong or pike, like a crow's bill (hence the name corvus), which served to grapple and hold to the deck of an adversary's ship when the bridge was dropped upon it. Thus, the plan was, as soon as Roman ships could make physical contact with the Carthaginians, each Roman vessel should drop its corvus upon an adversary ship which would permit the legionaries to rush across the bridge and make short work of dispatching the Carthaginians.[88]

The Romans, with their much larger vessels and their incurable instinct for land warfare at sea, went a great deal further than did their predecessors. The Roman quinqueremes carried as many as one hundred and twenty Marines to each ship, and to their valor - we are told by the most competent of witnesses - Rome's good fortune at sea was due. "For although nautical science," wrote Polybius, "contributes largely to success in sea-fights, still it is the courage of the Marines that turns the scale most decisively in favor of victory."[89]

The Roman quinquereme, Polybius also tells us, was manned by three hundred rowers and one hundred and twenty Marines, but whether these included the sailors, and how many were the commissioned officers, we have no means of knowing.[90]

The Marines of the Roman Navy were called Classiarii, or "Soldiers for Sea Service."[91] The "Romans" in addition to these "maintained a special force of Marines known as Lembarii. Probably the latter's duties were confined to serving on board river craft and the smaller natures of war-vessels, lembus meaning 'a small, fast-sailing vessel with a sharp prow; a pinnace; yacht; cutter.'"[92]

Among the Romans much larger detachments of Marines were carried on the Roman vessels than the Greeks carried on their galleys. Some Roman war galleys carried no less than 300 rowers and 120 Marines. To the latter, as the size of the ships increased, fell the duties of serving the ballistae and other engines of war for throwing heavy projectiles, which began to form an important part of a ship's armament.[92]

Sea service among Roman soldiers does not always seem to to have been popular, as Tacitus records the discontent of the Classiarii, who wished to be transferred to a more honorable calling. They did not like being herded with slaves and to be exposed to danger without hope of distinction.[93]

The Battle of Mylae in 260 B.C., furnished the first real test of the "crow." It resulted in the Romans first great naval victory and to the "crow" and the Marines can be credited the success. As the Punic captains steered confidently upon the Roman ships, they suddenly found their vessels grappled to those of the enemy, and the Roman Marines pouring over the

ships' sides across the "crows." Polybius writes that the battle "became exactly like a land fight." Over 50 Carthaginian ships were taken or sunk and Hannibal took the remnants of his fleet back to Carthage.[94]

Then came the year 257 B.C., and the historic Battle of Ecnomus which was "probably the greatest naval engagement of antiquity."[95] In point of numbers of ships and men engaged this is the greatest sea battle recorded, and the organization and action were peculiarly Marine on the part of the Roman victors.[96]

On the day of the battle off Sicily, three hundred and thirty Roman ships were attacked by three hundred and fifty Carthaginian, carrying 150,000 rowers and Marines. Polybius wrote that the total number of men making up the naval force of Rome amounted "to nearly 140,000 reckoning each ship as carrying 300 rowers and 120 Marines." As the average crew of the Carthaginian vessel was about four hundred men, there were nearly three hundred thousand men in action in this lively sea fight.[96]

The Roman estimate of the value of the "crow" proved correct - the Legionary, turned Marine, was irresistible. The Carthaginians had expected to win the day by reason of their superiority in ship handling and superiority of numbers, but when the developments of the day denied them the employment of naval tactics and brought them into hand-to-hand combat with the Roman Marines, they were almost helpless. The Carthaginian

fleet was badly shattered; their command of the sea was lost; and the way was laid open for the Roman invasion of Africa. From the day that Roman Marines in the Battle of Ecnomus saved Italy, the greatness of Carthage began to dwindle.[97]

Rome raised other fleets, the vessels of which were equipped with the crows. One fleet defeated the Carthaginians off Hermaneun but was destroyed later by a storm as was another fleet of 300 fully equipped vessels in 254 B.C. The Romans captured Lilybaeum the "Gibraltar of Sicily" in 250 B.C. This left Drepana as the only foothold of Carthage in Sicily.[98]

Publius Claudius, one of the consuls for 249 B.C., determinded to destroy the enemy's fleet at its moorings at Drepana. "As for Marines, he selected the best men from the whole Army, who were ready enough to join an expedition which involved so short a journey and so immediate and certain an advantage," wrote Polybius.[98] Claudius put to sea at midnight and arrived in sight of Drepana about dawn the next morning. The Carthaginians attacked. "At first the engagement was evenly balanced, because each fleet had the pick of their land forces serving as Marines on board."[98] The speedier Carthaginian ships, however, soon won the victory. The Carthaginian ships being swifter and handier, could maneuver and they no longer had the dreaded "crows" to fear, since the Romans were not in a position to maneuver so as to use them, being back close against the land.

Despite this defeat, Rome still had command at sea, and built fast vessels without "crows."

The Battle of the AEgatian Isles, 241 B.C., was the last battle of the First Punic War and the speedy Roman ships rammed and boarded their enemy's with ease. After this, in 240 B.C., Carthage sued for peace.[99] The First Punic War is probably the greatest sea contest in antiquity and lasted twenty-four years.

In the centuries following the First Punic War, the Roman Navy acted as auxiliary to the Roman Army and guarded the seas against piracy. No great sea battle was fought in the Second Punic War. Two sea battles were fought off Lilybaeum, one off the Ebro, and one off Tarantum; and in all but the last, the Romans were easily successful.

About the year 219 B.C., Seleucia was captured by Antiochus III, in a combined military and naval operation. Seleucia, which town stands on the seacoast, between Cilicia and Phoenicia, was held by a "garrison for the Egyptian Kings." After failing to seduce the town with bribery Antiochus assaulted "the town on the sea-ward side with the men of his fleet, and on the land-side with his soldiers." The "naval contingent" fixed "their ladders on the dock," and the Army being ready, the assault commenced which soon brought about the capture of the city.[100]

Polybius tells of the Marines of 217 B.C. The Carthaginian fleet consisted of "forty decked vessels," and the Romans manned thirty-five ships "and taking on board the best men"

that could be gotten from the land forces "to serve as Marines" the fleet put to sea and soon arrived near the mouth of the Iber close to the Carthaginian Fleet. The Carthaginians made but a short struggle for victory. After losing two ships with their crews, "and the oars and Marines of four others, they gave way and made for the land." This naval victory continued Rome as masters of the sea.[101]

About 218 B.C., the Macedonians, under Philip V, made every effort to fit themselves for sea-fighting. Philip made "continual experiments in practising the soldiers of his phalanx to the use of the oar" and "the Macedonians answered his instructions with ready enthusiasm."[102] When Philip had his Macedonian soldiers well trained to the oar, he put to sea with his fleet.[101]

In the course of the winter of 216 B.C., Philip built one hundred galleys. He had trained his men for rowing, not for fighting, "for he could never have even entertained a hope of fighting the Romans at sea." His ships were to be used as transports. His efforts to use the ships, however, were unsuccessful, due to the great panic that the near appearance of a Roman fleet had upon him.[101]

The great sea fight off Chios between the Macedonians and the Attalus-Rhodes allies occurred about 201 B.C. Polybius described this action. It was principally ship for ship fighting. The ship on which Dionysodorus, of Attalus, was

fighting in charging an enemy vessel "missed his blow;" but "running up alongside of the enemy lost all the oars on his right side," and suffered other damage. "In the midst of loud shouts and great confusion, all the rest of his Marines perished along with the ship," but Dionysodorus escaped. The entire battle is filled with the gallant acts and brave deaths of Marines.[102]

Mithridates, head of the Pontic Empire of the Black Sea, opened war on Rome in 88 B.C. It was plain that this war would depend in a large part upon control of the sea. The battle ground was Greece and both the Pontics and the Romans depended upon sea communications to feed and maintain their armies. At the opening of the war Mithridates had 300 decked ships and 100 open biremes.[103] Rome, however, had but a small squadron manned by mercenaries, and the Roman army was carried to Greece in Sicilian merchant ships. The control of the sea by the Pontic Navy seemed secure. Finally the Mithridactic Army invaded Greece. In 87 B.C., Sulla crossed the Adriatic with an army. He then saw the necessity of a Navy. He started to build one and also sent to Rhodes for some vessels. Sulla then, in 87 B.C., won the land Battle of Chaerona.[103]

The Roman Fleet next decisively defeated the Pontic Fleet. It was the Roman naval force securing control of the sea that at last brought victory to the Roman banners. After a second minor war the final Mithridactic War at last destroyed the Pontic hopes. In 74 B.C., the "Pontic Fleet comprised of 400 tri-

remes and quinqueremes and countless number of transports and lighter vessels,"[103] disturbed the Roman command of the sea, but Roman tactics and strategy soon destroyed this fleet in detail.[103]

Some of the ancient ships were of almost unbelievable size. Athenaeus says that Hiero, the Tyrant of Syracuse (272-216 B.C.), built a ship of tremendous proportions, which he first named the Syracusan and later the Alexandrian. This ship carried a detachment of Sea Soldiers that must have been at least 234 strong. "Sixty young men clad in complete armor," were constantly on guard on each side of this ship, besides "four young men fully armed and two archers," on each of her eight towers. Sixty armed men stood on the three masts and on the eight yards that carried the stones. Three armed men were stationed on one masthead, two on another, and one on the third. In addition to these there were six hundred more detailed to man the ship.[104]

Athenaeus, quoting Callixenus of Rhodes, states that when an enormous 40-banked warship belonging to Ptolemy Philopater, who ruled Egypt from 222 to 204 B.C., "put to sea it held more than four thousand rowers, and four hundred supernumeraries; and on the deck there were three thousand Marines, or at least two thousand eight hundred and fifty. And besides all these there was another large body of men under the decks, and a vast quantity of provisions and supplies."[104]

The dynasty of the Ptolemies was extinguished by Ant ony's shameful defeat by Octavius at Actium. Ant ony embarked 20,000 legionaries and 2,000 archers and slingers on his vessels, of which he had 220 in addition to Cleopatra's Egyptian fleet of sixty vessels. Octavius had 260 ships or galleys and a large force, including Marines. Early in 31 B.C., the main war fleets of the rival leaders were concentrated near the promontory of Actium on the southern coast of Epirus. "The engagement," wrote Plutarch, "resembled a land fight, or to speak yet more properly, the attack and defense on a fortified place." Cleopatra with an Egyptian squadron accompanied Antony into the action, but took to flight when the fate of the battle was in doubt. The enemy hotly pursued her ships, but she succeeded in gaining the harbor of Alexandria. When Cleopatra retired, Antony ignominously leaped into a boat and hastened after her. With the death of Cleopatra by the bite of an asp, the dynasty of the Ptolomies ceased to reign and Octavius was master of the world. Actium, the last decisive naval battle in ancient history, transformed the Mediterranean into a Roman Lake, and Egypt became a Roman Province.[105]

That the Romans appreciated the value of the Amphibious Army and continued an organization of Marine Infantry is attested by Rodolfo Lanciani.

He wrote that in 1866 a marble altar was discovered near Lambaese, upon which a report was engraved, beginning with a petition from Varius Clemens, governor of Mauritania, to Valerius Etruscus, Governor of Numidia, in 152 A.D., concerning the "perforation of a tunnel" in a mountain "to bring down to Bougie, Algeria (called then Saldae or civitas Salditana) the waters of a spring fourteen miles distant, now called Ain-Seur." The engineer was sent and included in his report that he had begun the excavation "with the help of two gangs of experienced veterans, namely, a detachment of Marine Infantry (classicos milites) and a detachment of Alpine troops (gaesates)." The tunnel was satisfactorily completed. Thus in 152 A.D., we find the Roman Marine, like the modern American able to do any sort of a job.[106]

Many historians of ancient history are of opinion that the Britons possessed a naval force previous to the landing of the Romans in England, as they were frequently engaged in war with their neighbors.[107]

The hide canoe appears to have been the earliest craft known to the Britons; these canoes were framed of light wood so arranged as to support and give strength to a hull of basket work, and then covered with hides. They were propelled by paddles and had mast. The Britons also had a fast sailing pinnace known to the Romans as the picta. The Romans were immensely ahead of the Britons with regard to the science of naval architecture.[108]

Gaul had been reduced by Rome and Julius Caesar turned to conquer England. He gathered 80 ships where Boulogne now is. "He at once sent his armed galleys ahead with archers" to "clear the approach, and then ordered the legionaries to spring overboard and advance toward the beach. Thus Rome entered England and commenced the conquest of Britain in 55 A.D.[109][110]

There are records of more than one Marine cohort, 500 to 1,000 strong, in Britain. In the time of Trajan (A.D.96-117) there was a cohort on service in Britain called Coh.Classiarri with duties much the same as were later assigned to the Marines, and in the Notitia in the reign of Theodosius the Younger, a section headed Item perlineam valli states after detailing 17 cohorts, or wings of cohorts, on guard there, that 'the Tribune of the 1st Marine Cohort, styled AElia et Tunnocelum, did duty at Bowness in the defence of the great wall which had been erected to keep off the wild tribes of Picts and Scots. At Netherby is an inscription showing number of feet of work executed by Classiarii northwest of Wall of Adrian.[111]

Among the fragments of Roman pottery unearthed at Dover, England, is a portion of a Roman tile bearing the inscription "CL.BR." Similarly inscribed tiles have also been discovered at Lympne, near Hythe, which is known to have been a Roman station, and in the museum at Boulogne, just across the Channel, is another of these tiles inscribed "TR.CL.BR." The Roman custom was to place such inscribed tiles in buildings as we put

coins, newspapers, etc., in corner stones. Antiquarians are agreed that the abbreviations "TR.CL.BR." represent the Latin words "Tribunus Classis Britannicae" or "Classiariorum Britannicorum" - "the Tribune of British Troops trained for sea warfare," indicating that the building in which the tiles were used was erected under the superintendence of the officer holding this position.[111]

According to Vegetius, the badge of these Marines was a circle, and was worn on their shields. It is a curious coincidence that the Royal Marine badge is a globe.[111]

In the Bodelian Library at Oxford is a small water-colour drawing of the circular shield carried by these ancient sea-soldiers. It is sea-green in colour, with a white rim and a circle in the center, divided into four quarters - two red and two white. The headquarters of the Roman channel fleet was at Boulogne, and according to a French writer[112] the uniform of the Classiarii - at any rate when embarked - was of the same sea-green colour as their shields, the idea being that it reduced visibility, either by day or night.[113]

Most probably, too, the Marines under the command of the Tribune at Dover, were not only Roman soldiers, but also Britons, for it was a regular practice among the Romans to raise native troops in the countries they conquered in the same way that England now has an Indian Army under British Officers,[114] and the United States has in the Philippines, Porto Rico, and Samoan Islands.

In the last days of the Roman dominion in England some portion, at any rate, of their Corps of Marines was placed under the immediate command of the Count of the Saxon Shore, a high official whose special duty it was to protect the eastern coast from the ravages of the North German, Danish, and Norwegian sea-rovers, "foes," as sang a Roman poet of the time, "fierce beyond other foes, and cunning as they are fierce; the sea is their school of war, and the storm their friend; they are sea-wolves that live on the pillage of the world."[115] The "Saxon Shore" extended from Yarmouth to Shoreham, and was defended by nine strong castles, and, according to Camden, the Count had under his command "7 companies of Footmen, 3 Guidons of Horsemen, the 2nd Legion and one Cohort." But the knell of the Roman Empire had been struck, her legions were recalled to defend the Imperial City against the hordes of Gothic warriors that menaced her, and Britain passed into the hands of our early English ancestors in the 5th century A.D.[116]

The special sea-soldier disappeared during the decline of the Roman Empire.[117]

In the 8th and 9th centuries, the crews of the <u>dromanes</u>, or <u>dromons</u> - as the biggest Mediterranean men-of-war were then termed - of the fleet belonging to the Emperor of the East, performed the compound office of mariners and soldiers, being alternately or jointly employed in working the vessel, annoying the enemy, or defending themselves.[118]

While all this was going on in Europe and the Near East, many naval incidents were occurring in the Far East, where China, Japan and Corea were active on the water. In 202 A.D., the Japanese Empress Jingo equipped a fleet for the invasion of Korea. "As an early instance of the use of 'sea-power' this expedition has laid great hold on Japanese imagination; but since the transportation of the flagship by legions of fishes, with which the Empress has made an alliance, is the central point of the story, its nautical details can hardly be seriously considered." However, it was a complete success for Japan.[119]

In 274 A.D., the people of Izu built and sent to the Court of Japan a vessel 100 feet long. Then the Karano was built in Japan by order of Emperor Ojin; it was 100 feet long.[120]

In 685 an expedition of 200 ships under Hirafu was sent against the Sushen who had only twenty vessels. After the Sushen had refused the tribute offered by Hirafu, he attacked and defeated them at the Amur River.[121]

Corea is not without its ancient naval history. The Corean fleet fought the Chinese as early as 107 B.C. The Coreans seem to be the Phoenicians of the Far East. About the middle of the 4th Century A.D., an "enormous Army of Jao Wang had long set sail," for a Chinese invasion of Corea, and in crossing the Gulf of Liaotung, "two thirds of his 500,000 soldiers and 170,000 sailors perished without striking a blow - most of them at sea."[122]

For centuries there was nothing in the way of naval or military organizations comparable to those of classical times, if we except the navy of Alfred the Great with its Corps of Butes Carles who served both ashore and afloat like our Marines of today. On shore they served side by side with the Hus Carles (boat or ship people and house people) as body guard to the reigning monarch, and afloat they served on board the Royal ship or whatever other ships were impressed for war service. This duty gives them a just claim to be considered as successors to the Roman Classarii or Marines.[123]

Alfred (871 to 901 A.D.) constructed large gallies capable of rowing above sixty oars. With these gallies he entirely freed the English Channel of a nest of daring pirates, with which the coast of Devonshire and the Isle of Wight had been infested.[124]

Then came the Battle of Hastings, a decisive Battle in which we have Marines with both Harold and William the Conqueror. Throughout the spring of 1066 all the seaports of Normandy, Picardy and Brittany rang with the busy sound of preparation. In England King Harold collected the army and the fleet with which he hoped to crush the invaders. But the unexpected attack of the fleet carrying Norwegian Marines of King Harald of Hardrada or Norway upon another part of England, eventually forced Harold to fight and win from Harald the Battle of Stamford Bridge, September 26, 1066.[125]

This splendid victory was dearly purchased for it left Harold's Army in sad condition to meet William's 50,000 knights and 10,000 soldiers. William's fleet was assembled at the mouth of the Dive, a little river between the Seine and the Orme by the Middle of August, 1066. With full sails, and a following southern breeze, the Norman Armada left France for England. The invaders crossed an undefended sea and found an undefended coast. They landed September 29, 1066, in Puvensey Bay in Sussex. The sea was smooth for landing; the "good sailors, the sergeants, and squires" unloaded the ships. The archers landed "first, each with his bow strung, and with his quiver full of arrows, slung at his side. All were shaven and shorn."[126]

King Harold's Butes Carles having disembarked from the ships in the channel, fell almost to a man round the Dragon standard at this Battle of Hastings which Harold lost to William on October 14, 1066.[127]

Again, in the superbly decorated and fully manned ship that Earl Godwin presented to his sovereign, there were 80 soldiers, each of whom wore two golden bracelets on each arm, weighing sixteen ounces apiece.[128]

But with these notable exceptions the Sea Soldier, as such, was temporarily defunct, at any rate in northern waters. The Vikings - the men of the creeks - who constantly harried England's shores, were sailors first, but well acquainted with the rough rules of warfare as then understood.[128]

The ships of the Middle Ages, whether King's ships or others, were manned by seamen only. Soldiers, it is true, often fought on board them, but they were an expeditionary force, not part of the ship's complement. These soldiers, or expeditionary Marines, were the retinue of the King, noble or knight, who was using the ships either as transports for a raid or more important expedition overseas, or in some cases to bring him in touch with enemy vessels which he designed to capture or destroy.[128]

Richard I, or "Coeur de Lion" who began his reign in 1189, entered into a treaty of alliance, with Philip Augustus of France, to unite their forces on an expedition to the Holy Land in the Third Crusade. Richard's Fleet consisted of over one hundred large ships and fifty gallies. This was nothing more or less than an immense expedition of Marines. The "Naval Laws" which he established for the government of his fleet were interesting and complete. They referred specifically to the "mariner and soldier."[129]

"When war was imminent, and it became necessary to prepare a fleet to carry the Crusaders, the sovereign directed the nobles who held fiefs and were ship-owners to prepare their vessels for sea, and to equip and arm them. *** Each sailor of the crew could, at a pinch, be turned into a soldier; and, besides these, there were always cross-bowmen and regular soldiers, whose duty it was to be the first to board an enemy's ship, or to beat back his boarders with hand-spikes and cross-bow shafts."[130]

"The admiral appointed to the command of the fleet published the order to arm in every port under his master's rule. *** The sea trumpets rang out their fanfares, and a herald at arms repeated in a loud voice the purport of the cartel [a scroll, announcing number of ships, etc., to be raised]. A clerk stood by, pen in hand, for the purpose of registering the names of the sailors and Marines, who, as they gave them, settled the conditions of their engagement.***"[130]

The largest and best-armed galley ploughing the Mediterranean in the Middle Ages was that one encountered by Richard the Lion-Hearted, according to the historian Matthew Paris, "on the 3rd of June, 1191, near the coast of Syria." It was carrying reinforcements to the Unbelievers who were besieging Acre. The British attacked this gigantic vessel, a dromon, in their lighter galleys and sank it.[130]

All the maritime states of this period used soldiers as Marines, or had a special corps of such sea-soldiers; but space will not permit to give the many details.[131]

In 1545 Francis I, of France, had a magnificent carack constructed in Normandy. It was called the "Great Carack." Henry VIII ordered an equally handsome one constructed.[130]

Let us once more look towards the Far East. Piracy was rampant in the Inland Sea of Japan in the 10th Century. Sumitomo was sent to destroy it but, like Captain Kidd of later days, he turned pirate himself, and Yoshifuru was despatched to overcome Sumitomo.

The latter had 1,500 vessels and Yoshifuru commanded a mere 200; but he wiped out the pirates with the assistance of Sumitomo's chief lieutenant who sold out. Bushi, as the Japanese professional soldiers (who served more at sea than on land) were called, served on these vessels.[132]

In the Spring of 1019 A.D., the Toi, originally called Sushen, poured into Japan. The Japanese assembled a fleet of thirty-eight ships and eventually drove the Toi out.[133] The 12th century brought civil war to Japan between the Taira and Minamoto clans and it culminated in a series of naval battles. The naval battle of Ichi-no-Tani was not decisive. It drove the Taira out of Harima but did not cripple their large "fleet which gave them a great advantage." The "key of the situation for the Minamoto was to wrest the command of the sea from the Taira." Orders were given to "collect or construct a fleet" of "war junks." This was soon accomplished.[134]

In the naval battle of Yashimi, which still remains one of the most extraordinary military feats on record, the Minamoto, led by their famous leader, Yoshitsune, defeated the Taira, on March 21, 1185. It was "a day of tempest," and Yoshitsune called for volunteers to run over to the opposite coast and attack Yashimi, under cover of the storm. About 150 daring spirits responded. They embarked in five war junks and some of the sailors disliking the service, were "ordered to choose between manning the vessels or dying by the sword." The surprise and the success was complete. On the 24th Yoshitsune reinforced with thirty war junks, attacked the enemy fleet

in Shido Bay and when Kagetoki (of the Minatomo) arrived off Kashima on March 25, 1185 "with some four hundred war-vessels, he found only the ashes of the Taira palaces and palisades." During the battle one of the best Taira archers made Yoshitsune a target, "but Sato Tsunginobu, member of the band of trusted comrades who had accompanied the Minamoto hero from Mutsu, interposed his body and received the arrow destined for Yoshitsune." Sato was a Bushi, one of the Japanese Soldiers serving at Sea.[135] The decisive battle of Dan-no-Ura followed on April 25, 1185 and was won by the Minamoto. The bushi fought valiantly on both sides in the battle which was a ship-to-ship action.

In November, 1274, a Mongolian Army of 25,000 Mongol braves and 15,000 Koreans invaded Japan embarked in 900 vessels manned by 8,000 Koreans and soon after, this Armada attacked Tsushima and Iki, Japan. Two hundred Japanese bushi fought to the death and held up the Mongols, but on November 20 the Mongols finally effected a landing. A land battle followed. The movements of the Mongol army were directed by "sound of drum" by the Commander-in-Chief. While the fight was going on a fierce gale sprang up and the Mongols embarked and put to sea. A storm sank many of the vessels with a loss of about 13,200 men.[136]

In 1281 the Mongols again invaded Japan. The Mongol fleet consisted of one thousand Korean ships carrying about 240,000 men. This force appeared off Tsushima in May, 1281.

The Mongols landed but were not very successful. On August 14, 1281, a terrible tempest shattered the Tartar flotilla. It was a stupendous disaster for the Mongols.[137]

About this time the Tartars overcame the Chinese. The Tartars pursued the Chinese Emperor and his Army and Navy "both by Sea and Land," to "Quang-tong, which is the last province of China." The Tartar General "obliged the Emperor to go on board his Fleet, with the Lords of his Court and the remains of his Army, which consisted of 130,000 men." The captive Emperor died, and was succeeded by Ti-ping who was on board his fleet. The "Chinese Fleet being overtaken by the Tartarian Fleet, could not avoid an engagement, which proved very bloody and decisive in favor of the Tartars, who gained a complete victory." The Chinese official who had charge of the Emperor threw himself in the sea with the young Emperor rather than be captured. The old Empress and most all the officers followed. One "General, who commanded a part of the Chinese Fleet, fought his way through the enemy and escaped their fury," only to sink in a terrible storm. Over 100,000 Chinese perished in this fight, either by the sword or the sea.[138]

On June 24, 1340, Edward III utterly defeated the French Fleet at the Battle of Sluys. Edward sailed with "two hundred sayle of good shyppes well furnished with men of warre." The French "were good men of warre on the sea," and the battle began.

The ships grappled, "Archers and Crosbowes beganne to shoote, and men-of-armes" fought "hande to hande." The great ship "Christopher was first wonne by the Englishmen," and fortified "with Archers," and sent to fight the Genoese.[139]

For a long time in England there were no men-of-war as we consider them today. When fighting-ships were required, merchantmen were impressed, transformed into war vessels, armed and manned. The few ships belonging to the Crown were really merchant-men and had to be transformed when needed for war purposes.[140] In 1377 such ships carried fifty men-at-arms and fifty bowmen - their Marine Detachments. This system lasted well up to the end of the 15th Century, but in the time of Edward III, there would appear to have been more provision made for a force of Marines for in an account of his expenses in the 21st year of his reign are found the words: "Here ensue *** and also the number of soldiers as well by land as sea and shyppes retayned in the warres of the saide Kinge," etc.[141]

In 1417 the largest ship carried 75 men-at-arms and 148 archers, while a small barge had only 4 lancers and 4 archers.[140]

"The adventurers who served on board vessels chartered by a sovereign or a foreign State were usually" relatives or friends of the captains. The "chosen band which under the name of Retenue de Poupe" or "poop guard" in the French and Mediterranean war-vessels of Medieval times was "entrusted with the duty of defending the Captain's Flag was solely

recruited from among these adventurers." They were stationed in the same part of the ship as were the Marines of later days, and seem to have formed an important part of its fighting force. These Sea Soldiers "died at their post rather than yield." "The Warriors of the Sea were always distinguished for their extreme intrepidity and boldness." They were also called "galley soldiers."[142]

By the time Henry VIII ascended the throne of England there was a regularly organized Royal Navy, and the Marine, or Sea Soldier, was again in evidence.[144]

In 1512, the King's ship, the Regent, carried "seven hundred Soldiers, Mariners and Gunners" attached to the ship in addition to an expeditionary force.[143]

The Henri Grace a Dieu[143] (or Henry Imperial) in 1514 was manned by 300 seamen and 400 soldiers. The latter, however, were entered as the "Retinue of Lord Ferars."[140] The Gabriel Royal also carried such retinues.[140]

A set of general orders for the regulation of the Royal British forces both by land and sea[145] drawn up by the King's orders by Thomas Audley, some time prior to 1532, shows that the main idea of naval tactics then was to get the weather-gauge and then board. In boarding "then enter with your best men."[146]

In 1546 Henry VIII's six largest battleships carried "Souldiers" as follows: Harry Grace de Dieu, 349; Mary Rose, 185; Peter, 158; Matthew, 138; Great Barke, 136; Jesus of Lubeck, 118.[140]

A few years after we find the ships of the King carrying "souldiers" as follows: Tryumph, 200; Elizabeth, 200; White Bear, 200; Victory, and Primrose, 160 each; Mary Rose and Hope, 120 each; Bonaventure, Philip and Mary, and Lyon, 110 each; Dreadnought, 80; with smaller numbers on the Swiftsure, Swallows, Anthlope, Jennett, Foresight, Aide, Bull, Tiger, Falcon, Aibates (Achates), Handmayd, Barke of Bullen, and George.[147]

In 1578, the Triumph, the largest of Good Queen Bess's ships carried a complement of 450 seamen, 50 gunners, and 200 soldiers.[140]

Twelve years later there were no "souldiers," in Queen Elizabeth's ships, only "such gentlemen as go voluntarily and the commanders make choice of." However, the hired ships carried from 50 to 150 soldiers.[140]

During Drake's time the "soldiers" or Marines were crowded off his ships to give place for the "gentlemen Adventurers" or "Gentlemen Volunteers," as they were called by Americans in our Revolution. The "gentlemen" were attracted to the service by the lure of the treasures on the Spanish Main. This system was criticised by Dr. John Dee who recommended soldiers "hardened well to brook all rage and disturbance at sea" and "understanding all manner of fight and service at sea, so that in time of great need, that expert and hardy crew of some thousands of Sea Soldiers would be to this realm a treasure incomparable." He pointed out the danger in time of great

need of using "fresh-water soldiers" and claimed that "skilful Sea Soldiers are also on land far more trainable to all martial exploits" than the Land Soldier[148] Queen Elizabeth had a frugal mind and was quite satisfied to thus save the expense of Sea Soldiers.

The Elizabethan period was essentially one of transition and evolution in naval matters. The old Mediaeval system, under which men-of-war were merely vehicles for moving about detachments of soldiers was dead. The advent of the sailing ships had killed it. Fleets in those early days were raised and manned, not for the purpose of meeting the enemy at sea but with the specific object of transporting a force of the military to land on the enemy's coast. It was often hard to say whether the commander of a ship, a regiment, or an expedition, was soldier, sailor, or both together.[140]

Santo Domingo was one of the chief jewels in the Spanish crown. But two or three cities in the old country could rival it for strength, size and beauty. It was known to be strongly fortified. In 1585 or 1586 Drake arrived in Dominican waters and decided to capture this Spanish prize. He carried on the vessels of his fleet a large number of soldiers and "Gentlemen adventurers," that formed what we today would call an expedition of Marines. In fact Drake's Expedition did not differ much in principle from the expedition of American Marines which occupied Santo Domingo in 1916. A secret landing was made at "a practicable landing-place some ten miles from the

harbor" of Santo Domingo City. "Drake ordered the whole of the troops into the boats and small craft of the fleet," that is in pinnaces and other ship-boats. "When all were embarked," Drake "placed himself at the head of the flotilla and in person piloted it through the surf." He then anchored his fleet off the town, bombarded it, lowered his boats as if to land, all of which caused the Spaniards to believe that the main landing was to be made at that time. Immediately after, however, "a loud alarm of drums and trumpets upon the right rear told" the Spaniards "of the trap into which they had fallen; with music playing and standards flying, Carleill's force to the number of over a thousand men were seen advancing in two columns," which after a brief fight captured Santo Domingo City.[149]

In Drake's Lisbon Expedition of 1587, we have 17,000 soldiers and pioneers, 3,200 English and 900 Dutch Sailors and 1,500 officers and "Gentlemen Volunteers." The soldiers and Marines when embarked, were expected to make themselves useful in the ordinary work of the ship.[140]

It would appear that the regular Marines were withdrawn from sea service about the time of the Armada[150] fight.[140] A state paper states that until the year 1588 "soldiers and Mariners were then usually divided, but that, and later experience hath taught us instead of 'fresh-water soldiers' (as they call them) to employ only seamen."[151] But in 1602 a detachment of soldiers, about one-third of the whole crew, were

allocated to each ship.[140]

A suggestion for a Marine Corps was made to Charles II (who began his reign in 1660) by Sir Bernard Gasgoine. It was to be composed of twenty "foot companies, under the name of Companies of the Sea (as they have done in France under the name of the Regiment de Marina) for the use of the sea," each company to consist of "150 soldiers all Mariners by profession," and unmarried. The Captain of each company should be fitted to command the vessel and his Lieutenant, "a good foot officer." The command of these companies was not to be sold but given for "personal valor."[140]

And so, during the latter part of the reign of James I, the "Soldier by Sea," was officially omitted from the complements of the British men-of-war and did not appear again until the institution of the Duke of York and Albany's Maritime Regiment of Foot by an Order in Council of King Charles II, dated October 26, 1664.[152]

But though there were no special Marine Regiments under the Commonwealth, "the regiments of Goffe and Ingoldsby" served as Marines in Blake's Fleet in the actions with the Dutch in 1652 and in the battles of February 18, 19, 20, 1653. The "soldiers" behaved "with great courage and gallantry," in these engagements.[140]

On July 3, 1652, Cromwellian soldiers fought against the Dutch in a naval action. "The Redcoats of Colonel Goff's Regiment that were aboard the Speaker" went down rather than surrender.

There were many ships engaged and the "English Red Coats" used "small shot and hand grenades" with killing effect and then boarded.[153]

The experiment of using Army troops aboard the vessels of the British Navy had been made during the latter part of the reign of King James I, up to 1664, but proved unsuccessful. During that period, service afloat was so unpopular that when it was known that the recruits might be sent aboard ship, none appeared. To meet this condition the "Admiral's Regiment" of Marines was authorized.[140]

On the 26th of October, 1664, Charles II, at a Court held at Whitehall, affixed his seal to the Order in Council which gave birth to the Duke of York and Albany's Maritime Regiment of Foot, "the care of all of which is recommended to the Duke of Albemarle, his Grace Lord General of his Mats Forces.[154]

The "Admiral's Regiment" as this organization of Marines was termed, consisted of 1,200 "Land Souldjers" divided into six companies of two hundred men each. Although described as "Land Souldjers" in the Order in Council, they were raised for service afloat, for in the preamble of the Order it is stated that it was issued upon a report received from the Lords of the Admiralty. The colors of this regiment were gold and red.[155]

A well-known military author,[156] writing on this subject says: "It having been found necessary on many occasions to embark a number of soldiers on board our ships of war, and

mere landsmen being at first extremely unhealthy, and for some time, until they had been accustomed to the sea, in a great measure unservicable, it was at length judged expedient to appoint certain regiments for that service, who were trained to the different modes of sea-fighting, and also made useful in some of those manoeuvres of a ship, where a great number of hands were required; these, from the nature of their duty, were distinguished by the appellations of maritime soldiers and Marines."[154]

The Marines "were expected to be more or less familiar with the duties of seamen."[157]

It is difficult to realize, in the absence of any historical matter bearing on the subject, the actual cause which prompted the King to the raising of this new regiment, seeing that the Convention Parliament[154] had resolutely determined against a standing army not only as causing "a perpetual trembling in the nation" but also as being "inconsistent with the happiness of any kingdom."[154]

The Act of Disbandment, vague in many of its conditions, appears to have sanctioned the maintenance of such a guard as the King "shall think fit to dispose of and provide for at his own charge," and it may, therefore, be within the bounds of possiblity that Charles, whilst desirous of acquiescing in the determined attitude of his subjects, as also of Parliament, on this subject, and equally anxious of satisfying his own inclinations, realized the feasibility of supplementing the

permanent armed strength of the nation, by raising a regiment, ostensibly for sea service, but really as an extension of that system by "which monarchy flourished in all its plenitude of sovereign power under the guardian sword of a standing army."[154]

The changes which were taking place in naval warfare called also for corresponding changes in the personnel. "At an early period the sea was regarded as a common highway for military expeditions,"[154] the commanding officers of fleets were often soldiers in training and by instinct, whilst the bulk of the crew were drawn from the same class, and not carried for the purposes of facilitating, or assisting in, the navigation of the ships in which they were borne, but merely as men-at-arms destined for some military objective as distinct from a purely naval one.[154.]

No authority can be traced for this singular idea of raising and training men as soldiers, and then suddenly transferring them to the totally distinct duties of foremast men. It is perfectly ludicrous to suggest that a regiment should be raised simply for the purpose of training soldiers to be entered as sailors as soon as they became disciplined soldiers.[154]

While authorities do not seem altogether clear as to the special reasons which led to the formation of the Royal Marines, Grose wrote that they were authorized for expeditionary purposes. "Experience hath shewn," wrote he "that these regiments have been very useful, but more especially upon fitting out squadrons of ships for an immediate expedition; for as they are constantly quartered, when not at sea, as near the

principal ports as possible, namely, Plymouth, Portsmouth, and Chatham, so were they with great facility put on board such ships as had most occasion for them; for they were under the immediate direction of the Admiralty."[156]

The true object, therefore, of the Marine force at its inception was not that of maintaining discipline and order among the "turbulent and refractory seamen of the period," but of serving with the Navy as a military body adapted to naval conditions.[154] The need for an "expeditionary force" of soldiers trained to the ways of the sea was as desirable then as now. Not only for what are termed "landing parties" was it desirable to have the Marines in the fleet but for the purpose of having a military force available to take advantage of the "surprise" in actions against strong points ashore, after the naval force had done its part. It was recognized by the "Fathers" of the early British Navy that such a force was not only necessary but that it could be maintained at an efficient standard only by being part of the naval service and serving on board the naval vessels. Nobly have the British Marines performed this duty.

That the origin of the British Marines lay in the performance of expeditionary duty is very clearly brought out in their history, which shows that they participated in the following: one company under Churchill (later Duke of Marlborough) served in a composite regiment with the French Army in France

against the Dutch (1672-1674); one company of Marines formed a part of a provisional battalion of the Virginia Expedition (1676); a large expeditionary force of at least 9 companies of Marines and probably seven more arrived at Ostend to fight with the Dutch against France (1678); a company of Marines formed a part of a provisional battalion that proceeded to Tangiers (1680); at battle with the French of Beachy Head (1690); Siege of Cork (1690); detachments of Marines went with Colonel Farrington's Regiment to Jamaica (1692); Gibraltar, where the "British Marines gained an immortal honor," for which they wear "Gibraltar on colours, headdress and accoutrements" (1704); Expedition to Toulon, Sardinia, Minorca and others (immediately after Gibraltar): Barcelona (1704 and 1705); Ostend (1706); Leake's Expedition to Balearic Isles (1706); St. Estevan (1707); Lerida (1707); Toulon (1707); Sardinia (1708); Minorca (1708); Isle of Cette (1710); Dunkirk (1711); Annapolis Royal or Port Royal, America (1710); Quebec, America, (1711); Carthagena, America, (1741); Belle Isle (1761); and Leeward Islands-Martinique and Guadaloupe (1758).[157]

Lord St. Vincent wrote Lord Spencer on June 30, 1797: "Marines. - A very considerable Corps should be kept up, and I hope to see the day when there is not another foot-soldier in the Kingdom, in Ireland, or the Colonies, except the King's Guard and artillery. The colonels of regiments might be provided for during their lives by annuities equal to their present pay and emoluments."[158]

The Marines of Great Britain have taken part in all the campaigns of their country both on land and sea. At least four excellent histories of the Royal Marines have been published and many articles in their magazine The Globe and Laurel.[159] The Dutch,[160] Spanish,[161] French,[162] Portuguese,[163] Russian,[164] German,[165] Italian,[166] Brazilian,[167] and other navies all had Marines or corresponding personnel at one time or another.

Let us now turn to the Western Hemisphere. It is like a book whose early pages have never been read.

NOTES
CHAPTER I.

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1. See MacCurdy, Human Origins; if the earth is between a billion and a million years old and man has been roaming it for about 100,000 years it is evident that beyond 9,000 years of recorded history of mankind there is a possibility of civilizations existing and disappearing without any chance of us ever learning of them.

2. M.C. Gaz., December, 1923, 243-254..

3. Warre, in a lecture beginning April 7, 1876 before the Royal United Service Institution, in England, solved this problem in these words: "The subject before us is that of Ancient Naval Tactics; but, having regard to its vastness and complexity, it will be as well at once to introduce some limitations," and by "Ancient, therefore, we will understand Greek and Roman - dismissing altogether those interesting questions concerning the Assyrian, Phoenician, Egyptian, and Carthaginian navies." (Journ., R.U.S. Inst., XX, 593).

4. Wells, Outline of Hist., 155; Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I,1; Culver, Book of Old Ships, Pref.; Cotterill and Little, Ships and Sailors, Intro.

5. Potter, Antiquities of Greece, II, 121.

6. Boats with oars are represented in the earliest pictorial monuments of Egypt dating from 2,500 B.C.; "In the contemporary relief representing a battle fought in the Mediterranean about 1,000 B.C., the Egyptian war-ships" have "from twelve to twenty-two rowers apiece according to the requirements of the sculptor" (Torr, "Ancient Ships, " 2); the Egyptian ships on the Red Sea about 1,250 B.C., "had one mast with two yards and carried one large square sail." (Id., 78); "the Phoenician ships of about 700 B.C., had one mast with one yard and carried a square-sail," and "these ships then were rigged like the ships that fought in the Mediterranean three centuries before." (Id., 79); Wells, Outline of Hist., 156-157; See Rawlinson, Herodotus, I, 188-189, for boats of Assyria, Armenia and Babylon; See also Culver, Book of Old Ships, 9.

7. Potter, Antiq. of Greece, II, 134; Torr, Ancient Ships, 79; R.U.S.I. Journ., XX, 618; The Washington Post, June 30, 1931 carried the following information concerning "the first sails" that "when the Phoenicians tired of rowing they erected trees on their vessels so that the wind would blow against them and help propel the boat. This later gave them the idea of masts and sails."

8. Corbett, Drake and The Tudor Navy, I, i - Intro.; See The Military Engineer, January, February, 1925, 18-26 for article by Maj. Gen. Comdt. John A. Lejeune; For ancient steam engines See Cotterill and Little, Ships and Sailors, 254-255.

9. Rawlinson, in translating the word Epibatai explains that it means "the armed portion of the crew, corresponding to our [English] Marines." So also Dr. Dale, in his translation of "Thucydides," renders the word Epibatai as "the heavy-armed soldiers who served on board ship, answering to our [British] Marines." The eminent Greek scholar, Dr. Arnold, takes the same view. The learned historian of Greece, Mr. Grote, speaks of Epibatai as Marines, and observes that "though not forming a corps permanently distinct, they correspond in function to the English Marines." In the statement that they did not form a distinct corps, Mr. Grote seems to differ from other authorities. Boeckh probably one of the very best authorities on the antiquities of Athens, who is so freely quoted by Mr. Grote in his history of Greece, and referred to by Dr. William Smith and Rich in their dictionaries of Roman and Greek antiquities, in speaking of matters concerning the Athenian Navy, remarks that "The complements of the swift triremes consisted of two descriptions of men: the soldiers intended for the defence of the vessels, who were also called Epibatae, but indeed in a more limited sense than ordinary, and the sailors. These Epibatae were evidently distinct from the land soldiers, whether hoplitae, peltastae or cavalry, and belonged to the ships." (Boeckh, Public Economy of the Athenians, translated by Lamb, 381-383); They had, moreover, their own officers, called trierarchoi. (Aldrich, Hist. of M.C., 24, quoting Captain S.B.Luce, U.S.N.); Boeckh frequently used the word "Marines." (id., 380, 381); The Cretan, Egyptian, Assyrian, Persian, Phoenician, Syracusan, and other ancient Marines also have definite names in the ancient languages.

10. Potter, Antiquities of Greece, II, 138; Warre in lecture "Ancient Tactics" in Royal United Service Institution Journal, XX (1876), 596, said: "We hear nothing in Homer of the ram, or of the distinction between rowers and seamen and Marines, which is so marked at a later period."

11. Potter, Antiquities of Greece, II, 138-141; "The Sea-Soldier, or Marine, formed part of the complement of ancient war-vessels. The Grecian troops employed on this service were known as Epibatai being quite distinct from the unfortunate Eretai or slaves, who tugged at the oars, and the Nautai, or sailors, who were exempt from this drudgery, but

11.(Cont.). performed all the other duties in the ship." (Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 2); "Sea warfare was at first like land warfare, combats of armed men at close quarters, their ships in contact and grappled," and Marines were an important factor in all such naval battles. "Later there was maneuvering and injury to vessels by ramming, or breaking off of oars, or by missile-throwing engines," (Captain Roy C. Smith, U.S.N., in Nav.Inst.Proc., September, 1924, 1296,); This brought a reduction in the number of Marines serving on board the ships; but expeditionary service became more important. For story of the "Antiquity of Marines" by Capt. R. F. Collum see Journal Mil. Science Institute, Vol. IX, p. 243; See Hamersly's "Naval Cyclopedia" pp. 465-476 for information by Captain Henry C. Cochrane, U.S.M.C., about Ancient Marines; For Ancient methods of signaling see article by Captain S. B. Luce, U.S.Navy, in Johnson's Cyclopedia; The crews of ancient warships, including the N.C.O. or petty officers, were divided into three groups: (1) Rowers, (2) sailors, (3) Marines. * * * The Marines were simply heavy-armed land troops (hoplites) detailed for duty on shipboard. They were used for boarding the enemy's ships, for repelling boarders, or for forming a mobile landing force to operate in the enemy's territory. Their numbers varied in accordance with the character and object of the expedition on which they were embarked. Generally speaking, in proportion to as the expedition was naval character, the smaller was the number of Marines taken on board. Thus, at Salamis, when the system of land warfare at sea still largely prevailed, the number of Marines attached to each warship was eighteen, of whom four were archers and the rest heavy-armed; while in the days of Phormio, half a century later, when naval tactics had reached a high stage of development, the total number had been reduced to ten which was barely sufficient to repel boarders during the few seconds in which the warship was intact with its rammed foe. When the object of the expedition was military as well as naval a much larger number of Marines, often as high as fifty to a vessel, was embarked on the Greek warship. The Romans, with their much larger vessels and their incurable instinct for land warfare at sea, went a great deal further. Their quinqueremes carried as high as one hundred and twenty Marines to each ship, and to their valor - we are told by the most competent of witnesses - Rome's good fortune at sea was due. For although nautical science says Polybius, "contributes largely to success in sea fights, still it is the courage of the Marines that turns the tide most decisively in favor of victory." The normal crew of the trireme, as we have seen, consisted of one hundred and seventy rowers, seventeen sailors and ten Marines. These numbers included the petty officers but

11.(Cont.)
were exclusive of the trierarch and the four subaltern commissioned officers, who brought the ship's company up to a total of two hundred and two. The Roman quinquereme Polybius tells us, was manned by three hundred rowers and one hundred and twenty Marines. * * * (Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, pp. 17-19)

12. Boeckh, Public Economy of the Athenians, translated by Lamb, 378.

13. Potter, Antiq. of Greece, II, 140; See also Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 4-5; "In very early times we find the elevated forecastle," serving "to protect the foredeck from the waves, and the crew and Marines from a raking fire as they approached the enemy." (R.U.S.I.Jour.,XX, 601).

14. Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 17-20; Jour.R.U.S.I., XX,602; Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 4, states that as early as 500 B.C., the division of the Greek ship's company into seamen, Marines and rowers was customary; See also Cotterill and Little, Ships and Sailors, 14, that mentions Greek "Marines."

15. Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 17-20; Warre in Royal United Service Institute Journal said: "The number of Marines seems to have varied greatly and depended much upon the style of fighting preferred;" for manning Ancient Floating War Towers see Kirkman, Primitive Carriers, etc.

16. Potter, Antiq. of Greece, II, 124, states that the "ship Argo," was "rowed with fifty oars, being the first of the long ships, and invented by Jason; Grote, History of Greece, I, 234, describes a landing party followed by a battle.

17. Rawlinson, Herodotus, I, 28-31, 300-303; Potter, Antiquities of Greece, II, 92, states that the ram is said "by Pliny to have been invented in the Trojan War, and to have given rise to the fable of the wooden horse."; During the French Naval War in 1800 Captain Daniel Carmick said being cooped up in the Sally prior to the capture of the Sandwich put him "in mind of the Wooden Horse at Troy."; Thucydides said that in the Trojan War there were used "fifty-oared vessels and galleys of war." (Jowett, Thucydides, I, 38-39); The Greeks assembled a force "at Aulis, in Boeotia, consisting of 1,186 ships and more than 100,000 men - a force outnumbering by more than ten to one anything that the Trojans themselves could oppose, and superior to the defenders of Troy even with all her Allies included." (Grote, Hist. of Greece, I, 289-290);

17. (Cont.)
"Naval Architecture, Past and Present," in Harper's, XLIV, 514 gives interesting information, stating that the "largest of the Grecian Fleet at the Siege of Troy (1184 B.C.) carried only 120 men," (p.514) and described the Corvus (p.515)

18. See Torr, Ancient Ships.

19. Jowett, Thucydides, I, 28; See also Baikie, Sea Kings of Crete, 9, 76; Dale, Thucydides, I, 57; Jour. R.U.S.Inst., XX, 596; "Herodotus though he in some places speaks of Minos as a person historically cognizable, yet in one passage severs him pointedly from the generation of man." (Grote, Hist. of Greece, I, 229); It is interesting to note that the Marines in 1827 fought Greek pirates. See also Commodore Foxhall A. Parker, The Fleets of the World - The Galley Period, p. 24.

20. Baikie, Sea Kings of Crete, 144-146; Rear Ad. Fiske, The Art of Fighting, 67-76, wrote: The earliest military leaders were in land-fighting. The first great strategist about whom history tells us was Thutmose III of Egypt, who reigned from about 1501 to 1447 B.C. He is worthy of the title "First Empire Builder." His principal campaigns were those in which he captured Kadesh, and when necessary he used ships to transport his Armies. An Associated Press Despatch, April 24, 1925, cited Prof. James H. Breasted of the University of Chicago as stating that he had developed photographic plates of inscriptions recording the first great naval battle of the World which was fought between the Egyptians (of the time of Rameses III, about 1200 B.C.) and the Philistines who had been driven to the sea by the influx of the barbarians who later became the cultured people of Greece. (Wash. Star, April 24, 1925, 45); about 525 B.C. Egyptians defeated Cypriots and Phoenicians in a sea-fight (Cotterill and Little, Ships and Sailors, 4).

21. Wells, Outline of History, 160.

22. Baikie, Sea Kings of Crete, 76-77, 224.

23. Wells, Outline of History, 161.

24. R. Brooke, P. Duhalde's Hist. of China, I; See also Wells, Outline of Hist., 150; "To the Chinese probably belongs the honor of first using vessels propelled by sail alone; but the early history of that remarkable nation is so enveloped in obscurity that no reliable information can be obtained with regard to the subject under consideration." (Harper's, March, 1872, XLIV, 522-523); Commodore Foxhall A. Parker, U.S.Navy tells us that the Chinese "with an eye painted on the bows of their cruisers" they ventured to sea, and that "Commerce at a very remote period along the coast of Hindoustan, and across the Arabian Sea even to the Persian Gulf."

25. Brinkley, Hist. of the Japanese People, 22-24; Jane, Imperial Japanese Navy, 1-2; Kaempfer, Hist. of Japan, I, 145-146; Kaempfer, I, 277, writes that the first war mentioned in Japanese History is that in 471 B.C., "between the Provinces of Jetz and Go;" on I, 280, he states that the "first men of war were built in Japan," in 78 B.C.; See also Elphinstone, History of India.

26. Chatterton, The Marvels of the Ship, 36; The Bible discloses that King Hiram of Tyre sent Solomon cedar of Lebanon only for the House of the Lord, not for swift galleys of war. Hiram sent cedar "in flotes by sea to Joppa," from where Solomon's burden-bearers carried it to Jerusalem (II Chron. Ch. II, 1,3,8,11,16,18; I Kings Ch. X, 17, 21; See also Ezra, Ch. III, 7). Solomon had some sort of ships but they were probably merchant vessels (I Kings, Ch. X, 11,12,22, 26-28).

27. Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 2; Cotterill and Little, Ships and Sailors, states "Indeed the earliest notice we have in the Mediterranean contains a reference to them: 'Zebulun shall dwell at the haven of the sea; and he shall be for an haven of ships; and his border shall be unto Zidon.' (Genesis, XLIX, 13)"; See also Knut Gjerset, History of Iceland, 1.

28. Torr, Ancient Ships, 4.

29. Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 41-43; Wells, Outline of History; See also Baikie, Sea Kings of Crete; Rawlinson, Story of Phoenicia, Ch. XII; Cotterill and Little Ships and Sailors, 3; Knut Gjerset, History of Iceland, 1; Noah, Travels in Europe and Africa, 211.

30. Rawlinson, Phoenicia, 136-138.

31. Wells, Outline of History, 252; "As early as the thirteenth century B.C., Greek vessels were sailing over the sea and five hundred years later the inhabitants of the Greek peninsula and the Western coasts of Asia Minor were keenly interested in maritime affairs." (Chatterton, The Marvels of the Ship, 38-39).

32. Rawlinson, Herodotus, I, 162; Dale, I, 9, quotes Thucydides as stating that "the Phocaeans, while founding Massalia [Marseilles], conquered the Carthaginians in a sea-fight;" Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 44.

33. Dale, Thucydides, I, 9.

34. Torr, Ancient Ships, 4.

35. Jowett, Thucydides, I, 37-38; Dale, Thucydides, I, 9; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 43.

36. Jowett, Thucydides, I, 38; Dale, Thucydides, I, 9.

37. Dale, Thucydides, I, 9, as does Jowett, I, 38, is quoted as saying that Samos in the reign of Cambyses of Persia had a "powerful Navy."

38. Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 45.

39. Rawlinson, Phoenicia, 197-200; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 45, 47; Rawlinson, Herodotus, III, 111.

40. Aldrich, Hist., M.C., 22, quoting Captain S.B.Luce; See also Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 4, 5; Warre in Royal United Service Institution Journal, XX, 602; says: "Xerxes great fleet carried 30 Marines to each trireme."

41. Rawlinson, Herodotus, III, 113-116.

42. Rawlinson, Phoenicia, 199-200; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 45.

43. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 4.

44. Major General Commandant John A. Lejeune, in M.C.Gaz., December, 1923, 249-250. See General Lejeune's article in the Military Engineer reprinted in pamphlet; "Marines of Phoenicia, Egypt, Greece, Carthage and Rome all performed the same character of mission as that of the modern American Marines - serving as soldiers on board the fighting naval ships and as expeditions prepared to carry on land operations in support of the fleets." (Major-General Commandant Ben H. Fuller in Leatherneck, June, 1931, p. 9, quoted from U.S. Naval Institute Proceedings.) An article entitled "A Century-Old Tribute to the Necessity of Marines with the Fleet," in Marine Corps Gazette, March 1916, pp. 19-24, is apropos and carries this note reading in part: "A remarkable tribute to the necessity of a full complement of Marines with the Fleet is found in a publication issued in London in 1824. The publication in question is entitled Naval Battles from 1744 to the Peace in 1814, Critically reviewed and Illustrated, by Chas. Ekins, Rear Admiral, C.B.K. W.N."

45. Rawlinson, Herodotus, III, 134-137; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 47.

46. Rawlinson, Herodotus, III, 172-190; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 48; It is here we have the origin of our

46.(Cont.)
"Horse Marines," for "Horse Transports" formed part of the Persian Fleet and many Sea Soldiers in their forces rode the horses when landing. That there were ancient sea-going Horse-Marines is vouched for by Athenaeus when he wrote that "there were also a great number of Cabins for the Marine soldiers, together with twenty stables for horses, ten on each side of the deck, with good accomodations for the horsemen and grooms." (Parker, quoting Burchett's "The Fleets of the World - The Galley Period," p. 22)

47. Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 48; See also Rawlinson, Herodotus, III, 260-279, and in III, 276, we read that "on board of every ship was a band of soldiers, Persians, Medes or Sacans," while in IV, 43, he states that "each of these vessels had on board, besides native soldiers, 30 fighting men, who were either Persians, Medes, or Sacans," which gives an addition of 36,210;; Grote, History of Greece, V, 80; Rawlinson, Herodotus, IV, 41; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 48.

48. Grote, History of Greece, V, 51-52, 54-55; Creasy, Decisive Battles, 33; Herodotus (Rawlinson, Herodotus, III, 310) wrote that Themistocles induced the Athenians to forbear the distribution of the silver "and build with the money 200 ships"; Potter, Antiquities of Greece, II, 142-143, states that "the first that engaged them in this enterprise was Themistocles, who, considering their inability to oppose the Persians by land, and the commodiousness of their situation for naval affairs, interpreted the oracle that advised to defend themselves with walls of wood" and to use the proceeds of the silver mine to build a fleet; Rawlinson, Herodotus, III, 307-309, states that Themistocles "counselled his countrymen to make ready to fight on board their ships, since they were the wooden wall in which the god told them to trust."

49. Rawlinson, Herodotus, IV, 46, 90, 83-84; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 49-50; See also James, Sea Kings and Naval Heroes, 14-20; The sea forces of King Xerxes in the great invasion of 480 B.C. according to Herodotus, amounted to 1207 triremes and 3000 penteconters, trieconters, light boats and transports, the whole being manned by 481,400 sailors of subject nations, and 36,210 Persians serving as Marines. (Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 48)

50. Rawlinson, Herodotus, IV, 41; Cary, Herodotus, 425; See also Grote, History of Greece, V, 80.

51. Rawlinson, Herodotus, IV, 41; Grote, History of Greece, V, 80; Cary, Herodotus, p. 425.

52. Felton, Greece, Ancient and Modern, II, 117; See also Fiske, Art of Fighting, 79; Creasy, Decisive Battles, 33-34.

53. James, Sea Kings and Naval Heroes, 13-14; See also Fiske, Art of Fighting, 88-93, for description of Battle of Salamis; Lamb, Boeckh, Pub.Econ. of the Athenians, 378-379, states that according to Herodotus "the crews in the 1,207 ships of Xerxes at 241,000 men assuming for each, including the usual number of native Marines, or Epibatae, which belonged to each vessel, *** the thirty Epibatae, who, besides these, were on board of each ship, did not belong to the usual complement of the vessel."

54. Rawlinson, Herodotus, IV, 112-113.

55. James, Sea Kings and Naval Heroes, 14-20; If Thutmose III, was the first great strategist of history, Themistocles was the second. (Fiske, Art of Fighting, 83); See also Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 54-55.

56. Cary, Herodotus, 467; Aldrich, Hist. of U.S.M.C., 22, quoting Captain S.B.Luce, U.S.N.

57. Aldrich, Hist. of U.S.M.C., 22, quoting Captain S.B.Luce, U.S.N.; See also Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 45; About 40 Epibatae were usually carried on board the largest class of triremes; "but at the Battle of Salamis, 480 B.C., the Athenian triremes are said to have carried not more than 18 of these sea-soldiers upon their hatches fighting stages and [gangways]. Four of these were archers, and the remainder were armed with javelins and shields." (Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 4); "Thus when we read of Themistocles placing his 18 warriors on the hatches of each of his galleys, in attacking the Persian Fleet, we receive it as synonymous with the saying that he had stationed his Marines on the booms, " reported A.&.N.Chronicle, V, No. 16, October 19, 1837, 241; Captain Luce wrote that "the largest number of Marines found aboard each of the 'swift ships' - that is the regular men-of-war, as distinguished from transports - at this period was forty." (Aldrich, Hist. of U.S.M.C., 22, quoting Captain S.B.Luce, U.S.N.); At the Salamis Battle there was room on the ships for "only four bowmen and 14 hoplites in each trireme." "At the beginning, as at Salamis, officers, Marines, and rowers were Athenians." (Gulick, Life of the Ancient Greeks, 199-206); It may not be out of place to give here one of the many incidents of the Battle of Salamis, as an illustration of the valor and mode of fighting of the Epibatae. Herodotus writes that: "A Samothracian vessel bore down on an Athenian and sunk it, but was attacked and crippled immediately by one of the AEginetan squadron.

57. (Cont.)
Now the Samothracians were expert with the javelin, and aimed their weapons so well, that they cleared the deck of the vessel which had disabled their own, after which they sprang on board, and took it." (Rawlinson, Herodotus, IV, 141); Trireme in Peloponnesian War carried "on the average of 170 oarsmen, 30 supernumeraries or Marines, etc. (Cotterill and Little, 14.)

58. James, Sea Kings and Naval Heroes, 14-20; Fiske in "The Art of Fighting," 45, states that "it was not until the Battle of Salamis in 480 B.C., that we have any connected account of their [boats] use in battle."

59. Rawlinson, Herodotus, IV, 260.

60. Rawlinson, Herodotus, IV, 248.

61. Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 76; See also Creasy, Decisive Battles, 34; The need of transporting soldiers in warships to a distant fighting grounds, about this time, led to Cimon's improvement, by which ships were given broader beam, and the decks at bow and stern were joined by bridges on which a considerable number of Marines could be brought into action. (Gulick, Life of the Ancient Greeks, 199-206).

62. Jowett, Thucydides, I, 45.

63. Gulick, The Life of the Ancient Greeks, 190-206.

64. Aldrich, Hist., U.S.M.C., 22, quoting Captain S.B.Luce,U.S.N.

65. Jowett, Thucydides, I, 67-69; "Some of the earlier naval battles of the Civil War were fought in very much the same way as the sea fight near Chemerium described by Thucydides," wrote Jowett in foot-note on page 69; "Both sides raised trophies and claimed the victory." (Jowett, Thucydides, I, 74).

66. Jowett, Thucydides, I, 118; Dale, Thucydides, I, 61-62.

67. Jowett, Thucydides, I, 123; See also Creasy, Decisive Battles, 34.

68. Jowett, Thucydides, I, 228.

69. Jowett, Thucydides, I, 244-253; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 17-20.

70. Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 17-20.

71. Jowett, Thucydides, I, 267.

72. Creasy, Decisive Battles, 47-48; According to Thucydides, Alcibiades (who had escaped to Sparta) advised the Peloponnesians that they "must therefore in Sicily fight for the safety of Peloponnesus. Send some galleys thither instantly. Put men on board who can work their own way over, and who, as soon as they land, can do duty as regular troops."

73. Jowett, Thucydides, III, 39, 54-55; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 96; Dale, Thucydides, II, 406-407; James, Sea Kings and Naval Heroes, 21-24.

74. Jowett, Thucydides, III, 41-42; See also Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 98.

75. Jowett, Thucydides, III, 78-81, 115,154,191-195; See also Dale, Thucydides, II, 475-476; See also R.U.S.I., XX,602. The Sicilian Expedition of Athens. * * * No previous engagement, says Thucydides, had been so fierce and obstinate. Great was the eagerness * * *. The Marines too were full of anxiety that, when ship struck ship, the service on deck should not fall short of the rest; every one in his place assigned to him was eager to be foremost among his fellows. * * * All the time that another vessel was bearing down, the men on deck poured showers of javelins and arrows and stones upon the enemy; and when the two closed, the Marines fought hand to hand and endeavored to board. (Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 105-106)

76. James, Sea Kings and Naval Heroes, 21-24; rams were used very early - Phoenicians had them as early as 700 B.C. (Torr, Ancient Ships, 51-52); no mention of rams by Homer. (R.U.S.I., XX, 596); In the Second Speech of Nicias he said, in part, that Sicily was a strong foe who had "numerous hoplites, archers and javelin-men" etc. "Against such a power more is needed than an insignificant force of Marines. (Thucydides, translated by Jowett, p. 424) From the speech of Nicias to the Athenians before the final battle in the great harbor of Syracuse: * * * but we are obliged to fight a land battle on shipboard. * * * we have provided iron grapnels, which will prevent the ship striking us from retreating if the Marines are quick and do their duty. * * * When ship strikes ship refuse to separate until you have swept the enemy's heavy-armed from their decks. I am speaking to the hoplites (Marines) rather than to the sailors; for this is the special duty of the men on deck. *** Repel your enemies, and show that your skill even amid weakness and disaster is superior to the strength of another in

76.(Cont.)
the hour of his success. (Land Forces in Ancient Sea Fights. Thucydides, VII, 62,63; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 229-230).

77.Jowett, Thucydides, III, 212-213; See also James, Sea Kings and Naval Heroes, 21-24; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 108; detailed story of an "Ancient Overseas Compaign" in naval Inst. Proc., March 1928, pp 201-211.

78.Jowett, Thucydides, III, 235.

79.Jowett, Thucydides, III, 318-323; Dale, Thucydides, II, 579-580.

80.Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 116-119; Creasy, Decisive Battles, 56.

81.Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 123-129, citing Bury, History of Greece, II, 282.

82.Wells, Outline of History, 324; In a Council of War before Tyre fell to him, Alexander said: "For the Phoenician sailors and Marines will not dare to put to sea in order to incur danger, on behalf of others, when their own cities are occupied by us." (Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 126, quoting Arrian, "Anabasis of Alexander," II,17).

83.Potter, Antiquities of Greece, II, 155-157.

84.Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 127.

85.Shuckburgh, History of Rome, 241-244; See also R.U.S.I., XX, 615.

86.Shuckburgh, History of Rome, 241-244; See also Shuckburgh, Polybius, I, 22.

87.M.C.Gazette, December, 1920, 356-358; Shuckburgh, History of Rome, 241-244; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 144; Creasy, Decisive Battles, 85; R.U.S.I., XX, 616. "In the first war with Carthage, which lasted from 264 to 241 B.C., the Romans adapted themselves to the water, built a Navy, destroyed the fleets of Carthage, and established the 'freedom of the seas' - for Rome and her Allies." (Infantry Journal, August, 1929, p. 125).

88.M.C.Gazette, December, 1920, 356-358; Shuckburgh, History of Rome, 241-244 states that the corvi or crows enabled "the Marines to board the enemy's vessel and fight as though on land;" There was exhibited at the Great Exhibition at Hyde Park, London, in June, 1851, a model of a

88. piratical galley of Labuan, part of the mast of which could "be let down on an enemy and form a bridge for boarders." (Creasy, Decisive Battles, 86); "The Romans, in their desire to neutralize the deadliness of the ram and convert sea warfare into something like a combat on land, hit on an extremely ingenious device. Realizing their deficiencies as seamen, and tacticians, as compared with the Carthaginians, they invented the famous 'crow' (corvus) or boarding bridge, whereby their invincible legionaries could cross to the decks of the enemy's vessel and over-power it. The 'crow', as will be seen, was used with signal effect in the First Punic War and was probably a decisive factor in the establishment of Rome's mastery at sea. The Greeks and the Romans alike, however, were forced to realize that this method of land warfare afloat, though often excellent for defensive purposes, was utterly inadequate for offensive sea warfare." (Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 30); See also Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 144; Warre in Royal United Service Inst. Journal, XX, 616, wrote that "defeat was a certainty; but some ingenius spirit suggested" the "construction of a novel engine of warfare," the crow. Polybius wrote it was 24 feet high, 9 inches in diameter, who also compared the "iron claw" to the "knocker of a door." The crow bound the two vessels together; then the Marines, if the vessel was prow to prow, rushed two abreast over the bridge; The Greek word for the boarding bridge (called Corvus in Latin) was Korax, the derivative meaning of which was a raven-like beak for grappling. (Chatterton, Ships and Ways of Other Days, 62).

89. Shuckburgh, Polybius, I, 502; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 17-19.

90. Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 17-20.

91. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 2 - definition from Smith's Latin-English Dictionary; See also A.&.N.Chron., V, No. 16, 1837, 241; Potter, in his Antiquities of Greece, II, 140, wrote that "Soldiers that served at Sea" were, in Latin termed "Classiarii."

92. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 2 - definition from Smith's Latin-English Dictionary; id., 5; See also A.&.N. Chron., V, No. 16, 1837, 241; Unlike the Roman fleet their fleet contained no extra body of Marines, but was equipped solely for a naval engagement - a circumstance which though making for greater ease of maneuvering was a grave disadvantage for the fighting at close quarters which the Romans would surely try to force. (Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 149).

93. Warre, Royal United Service Institution Jour., quoted by Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 5.

94. Shuckburgh, History of Rome, 241-244; Shuckburgh, Polybius, I, 26; R.U.S.I.Jour., XX, 618.

95. Wells, Outline of History, 403; the invention of the crow "paralysed the ram." (R.U.S.I.Jour., XX, 618).

96. M.C.Gazette, December, 1920, 356-358; Shuckburgh, History of Rome, 241-244; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 144; Shuckburgh, Polybius, I, 29-30.

97. M.C.Gaz., December, 1920, 356-358; Shuckburgh, Hist. of Rome, 241-244; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 144; Shuckburgh, Polybius, I, 33.

98. Shuckburgh, Polybius, I, 48, 57-59; "Having filled his ship with picked soldiers from the Army for Marines, Claudius put to sea at midnight." (Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 159).

99. Wells, Outline of History, 403.

100. Shuckburgh, Polybius, I, 411-412. This operation is very suggestive of the capture of Fort Fisher in 1865 by the Federal Army, Navy and Marines.

101. Shuckburgh, Polybius, I, 253-254, 359, 360, 455-456.

102. Shuckburgh, Polybius, II, 176-179; The ship thus struck sank with all hands; but Autolycus and his comrades, as the sea poured into his vessel through the prow, were surrounded by the enemy. For a time they defended themselves gallantly, but at last Autolycus himself was wounded and fell overboard in his armor, while the rest of the Marines were killed fighting bravely. While this was going on, Theophiliscus came to the rescue with three quinqueremes, and though he could not save the ship, because it was now full of water, he yet stove in three hostile vessels, and forced their Marines overboard. Being quickly surrounded by a number of galleys and decked ships, he lost the greater number of his Marines after a gallant struggle on their part. (The Battle of Chios (201 B.C.) Polybius, XVI, 2-15; quoted from Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 230-234).

103. Nav.Inst.Proc., April 1924, 575-588; for campaign of Cnaeus Pompey against pirates in 67 B.C., See Nav.Inst. Proc. June, 1930, pp. 521-526.

104. Yonge, Athenaeus, I, 324-333; Nav. Inst. Proc., March, 1925, 446-447; Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 167, 169; Chatterton, Ships and Ways of Other Days, 43; Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 4; Torr, Ancient Ships, 8-9. St. Johnston, The Islanders of the Pacific, 40.

105. James, Sea Kings and Naval Heroes, 25-29; Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 14; In the battle of Actium "a device was employed for throwing a grappling iron or harpoon at the end of a cable to the enemy's vessel," which was then hauled alongside and boarded. (Shepard, Sea Power in Ancient History, 33); Creasy, Decisive Battles, 120; Cotterill and Little, Ships and Sailors, 25-28.

106. Rodolfo Lanciana, Ancient Rome in the Light of Recent Excavations, 62; M.C.Gaz., December, 1920, 358.

107. Schomberg, Naval Chronology, I, 1-2; See also Bowen, The Sea Its Hist. and Romance, I, 1,166,168; Waddell, Phoenician Origin, Britons, Scots and Anglo-Saxons.

108. Clowes, The Royal Navy, I, 1-13; See also Schomberg's Naval Chronology, I, 1-2; Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 168.

109. Fiske, The Art of Fighting, 141; Journ. Royal United Service Institution, 1873, 50.

110. Creasy, Decisive Battles, 146; for illustration of Caesar landing in England see Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 5.

111. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 1-2; Bruce in his "History of the Roman Wall" mentions the Notitia Imperii which refers to "The Tribune of the First Marine Cohort, styled AElia, at Tunnocelum". Says Cochrane: "Thus there was a First, and therefore a Second and possibly many other Marine Cohorts in this Roman Army." (History of Marine Corps by Capt. Henry C. Cochrane, USMC. in Hamersly's Naval Ency. p. 476).

112. Lt.Col.Hennebert, "Nos Soldats."

113. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 2: The color of this uniform is of interest in view of the color of the present winterfield uniform of the Marines.

114. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 2.

115. Quoted by Green in his Short History of the English People.

116. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 5; See also Schomberg, Naval Chronology, I, 1-2.

117. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 5.

118. A.&.N.Chronicle, V, No. 16, October 19, 1837, 241; Britain's Sea Soldiers, Field, I, 5.

119. Jane, Imperial Japanese Navy, 4; Kaempfer, History of Japan, I, 282, says year was 201 and it was Empress Singukogu or Dsin Gaukwoo - she had a child in Corea and had to return; Brinkley, History of Japanese People, 88; Allen, Chronological Index, Korea, 1; See also Bayard Taylor, Japan, in Our Day, 1-3; Griffis, Corea, 53-55.

120. Brinkley, History of the Japanese People, 99, 100, 126; 500 Karanos were built, "and there was assembled at Hyogo such a fleet as had never previously been seen in Japanese waters.

121. Brinkley, History of the Japanese People, 34-35, 121; Griffis, Corea, The Hermit Nation, 129-130.

122. John Ross, Corea, Its History, 13-17, 69-74, 149-168; See also Allen, Chron.Index, Korea, 1-2.

123. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 5.

124. Schomberg, Naval Chronology, I, 4.

125. Creasy, Decisive Battles, 187.

126. Creasy, Decisive Battles, 188-216; See also Royal United Service Institution Journal, 1873, 50; Lediard, Naval Hist., England, I, 2; Cotterill and Little, Ships and Sailors, 65.

127. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 5; Creasy, Decisive Battles, 197-214.

128. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 5, 6.

129. Schomberg, Naval Chronology, I, 7-8; D.A.R.Mag.,Nov. 1919, 665-666; The weapons in use in English ships of war of the 12th century were bows and arrows, pikes or lances, axes, swords, and engines for flinging stones or other heavy missiles; and to them was added in or before the reign of Richard III, the famous invention known as Greek Fire. (Clowes, Royal Navy, I, 102); See also Cotterill and Little, Ships and Sailors, 67-86.

130. The galliot occupied an intermediate place between the ship properly so called and the large galley. Two remarkable galliots are mentioned in history, one of which was an exact model of the celebrated Great Carack. It was built at Venice to carry three hundred guns and five hundred soldiers, besides its own crew of sailors. (LaCroix, Military and Religious Life in the Middle Ages, 75-76, 79, 81, 85-86).

131. For instance, on May 3, 1241, was fought the celebrated "terrible naval conflict" known as the Battle of Meloria, near Leghorn, in which the Pisans decisively defeated the Genoese. (James, Sea Kings and Naval Heroes, 30-34); There was personnel on board the ships of both fleets who performed military duties. The Orders and Signals of the Venetian Fleet in 1365 provided that at night "none of the men of the galleys, nor any soldier" were allowed to "bear arms on shore, either in subject territory, or elsewhere," etc. (Nav.Inst.Proc., XX, 1894, 545-548). The Italians in the 14th and 15th century relied on the galea or galley proper, for the bulk of the fighting line. It was about 160 feet long with a beam about one-seventh of its length. The rembata, a solid platform carried the battery or forecastle; aft was another platform, called the spalliera, which carried the deckhouse and from here the officers fought and navigated the ship. "Both platforms were closed in below, so as to form quarters for the soldiers forward and the officers aft." "The actual fighting force consisted of the Captain and three 'gentlemen of the poop,' two gunners with their mates, one sergeant, four corporals, and forty-five soldiers, or fifty-eight in all, as against at least over 200 non-effectives." (Corbett, Drake and the Tudor Navy, I, 9-10.).

132. Brinkley, History of the Japanese People, 247-248, 264 for Bushi information and 255 for piracy; See also Nitobe, Bushido.

133. Brinkley, History of the Japanese People, 262-263.

134. Brinkley, History of the Japanese People, 316-317.

135. Brinkley, History of the Japanese People, 317-318; See also Kaempfer, History of Japan, I, 307-309, et seq.; Jane, Imperial Japanese Navy, 5-6 states at Battle of Dan-No-Ura 500 Taira war junks were defeated by 700 Minamoto vessels; Brinkley, Hist. of Jap.People, 319 states ~~that at~~ these battles the "naval tactics consisted solely in getting the wind gauge for archery purposes."

136. Brinkley, History of the Japanese People, 358-361.

137. Brinkley, History of the Japanese People, 358-361; Jane, Japanese Imperial Navy, 6-7; Corner, Hist., China and India, 57-58; Kaempfer, History of Japan, I, 314-315; states that the "Tartar General, Mooko, appeared upon the coasts of Japan with a fleet of 4,000 sail and 240,000 men; for battles about 1560 A.D. See Duhalde, Hist., China, Trans. from Fr. in 1741, by Brookes, I, 464-465; For battles between Korea and Japan about 1592-1597 see Nav. Inst. Proc., July 1929; About 1281, Mongols, having overrun China, their leader Kublai Khan sent 3500 Junks and 100,000 men, an "invincible armada" but it was defeated by a storm. Illustrations also, including a Japanese War Junk of the 12th century. A vignette illustration on the National bank notes, shows spearmen on decks. (Harper's, LIII, 506); "The Koreans were the first to invent the iron-clad war-ships." Kwi-sŭn, or "Tortoiscboat" in 1592. (Harper's XCIX, 104-105 and a good illustration on p. 102.)

138. R. Brookes translation, P. Duhalde, History of China, I, 442-443; Corner, Hist., China and India, 52; an illustration in Kirkman Primitive Carriers, etc., shows soldiers in lookout and on hurricane deck of junk with cross-bows, sword etc.

139. Grafton, Chronicle, 347-348; See also Froissart; See Tappan, In Feudal Times, 8, for illustration; Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 26; Lediard, Naval Hist., Eng., I, 47, 49.

140. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 6-11, 16, 30. These "gentlemen" suggest the "Gentlemen Sailors", or Marines that served on American privateers in the Revolution.

141. Grose, Military Antiquities, cited in Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 6; Grose, Military Antiquities, I, 278, in an ancient manuscript gives the establishment of King Edward III's Army in Normandy and before Calais, in the 20th year of his reign. It mentions "900 ships, barges, ballingers and victuallers" and also "mariners."

142. LaCroix, Military and Religious Life in the Middle Ages, 88-89.

143. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 8, citing Rymer, XII, 326; LaCroix, Military and Religious Life in the Middle Ages; See Grant, British Battles, I, 112.

144. The Great Michael of James IV of Scotland carried 300 seamen, 120 gunners and 1,000 men-at-arms (Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 52).

145. See Oppenheim, 63, cited in Corbett, Drake and The Tudor Navy, I, 43; earliest known English effort to codify laws of sea are Laws of Oleron about reign of Henry II (Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 170-171, 187)

146. Corbett, Drake and The Tudor Navy, I, 43.

147. Grose, Military Antiquities, I, 124-128; See also Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 12, citing E. Codice Antiq: MS. Penes Sam.Knight, S.P., for this information which states that it was at the time of Queen Elizabeth.

148. Dr. John Dee, The Petty Navy Royall, pub. in 1577, cited in Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 9; copy in Lib. Cong. is entitled Memorials of the Art of Navigation.

149. Corbett, Drake and The Tudor Navy, II, 29-61; Lediard, Nav. Hist., Eng., I, 214; Col. Geo. C. Thorpe, U.S.M.C., described this operation in M.C.Gaz., December, 1920, 359, as follows: One of special interest is that of the landing in 1585 or 1586 west of Santo Domingo City to take that place very much the same as was done by American Marines in 1916, with the difference that, while the Dominicans fled in the latter case, the Spaniards resisted with infantry, cavalry, artillery, and by driving a herd of long-horned cattle upon the attacking British Marines; See also Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 255.

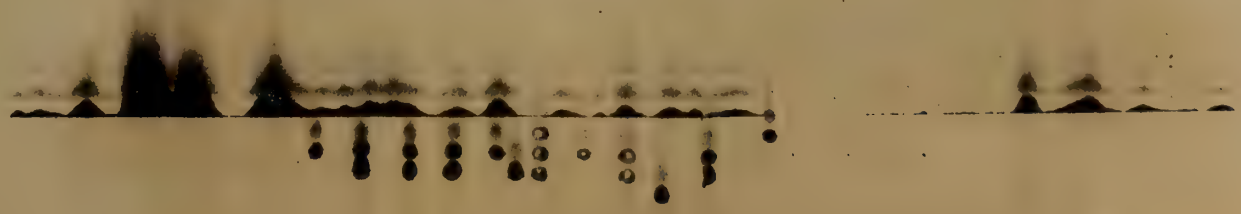
150. For Armada's "soldiers" See Ubaldino, The Armada, 69-72; Creasy, Decisive Battles, 259-261.

151. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 11, citing States Papers, Dom. XVII, 103, quoted by Oppenheim, Admin. of Royal Navy.

152. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 14-17; Edye, History of the Royal Marine Forces, I, 1.

153. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, Addenda, I, citing "The Last Great and Bloudy Fight Between the English and Dutch in the Downs," etc., Printed for G. Horton, 1652.

154. Edye, History of the Royal Marine Forces, I, 1-5. See also Richard Cannon's Hist. Rec.of The Marine Corps (Royal Marine); Laughton, Studies in Nav. Hist., 48-50; "War is always a possibility. It is difficult to prepare for. Principles of war are unchangeable but their application vary and methods are constantly changing. Material and personel are different today than they were yesterday and will



154.(Cont.)
not be the same tomorrow. And we must be ready. Headquarters, Marine Corps Schools, and the other appropriate agencies of the Corps, should be continuously planning to have the Corps fully prepared for any future major war, in which the general function of the Corps would be, as an adjunct of the Navy, to provide and maintain forces for land operations in support of the Fleet for the initial seizure and defense of advanced bases and for such limited auxiliary land operations as are essential to the prosecution of the naval campaign." (Major General Commandant Ben H. Fuller, in Marine Corps Gazette of November, 1930, p. 8).

155. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 14-16; See also Ford, Admiral Vernon and the Navy, 50; Schomberg, Naval Chronology, I, 84.

156. Grose, Military Antiquities, I, 167, 169.

157. For information on British Marines See Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers; Edye, History of the Royal Marine Forces; Gillespie, History of the Royal Marines; Nicholas, Historical Records of the Royal Marine Forces.

158. Col. Cyril Field's Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 210.

159. For historical information concerning the Royal Marines see Colonel Cyril Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers; Edye, History of the Royal Marine Forces; Gillespie, History of the Royal Marines; Nicholas, Historical Records of the Royal Marine Forces; Bennet Copplestone, "Nobody's Children," about the World War, pub. in Cornhill Magazine, November, December, 1919, and also at a later date in the Globe and Laurel; T.Smith, "Royal Marines," in U.S.Magazine, May, 1874; Francis Grose, Military Antiquities, (1812), I, 167-171; Marine Corps Gazette, December, 1923, 114, Article by General John A. Lejeune; The history of the Royal Marine Artillery is set forth in "The Royal Marine Artillery", two volumes, by Edward Fraser and L.G. Carr-Laughton. "The coming into existence of the Royal Marine Artillery dates from the year 1804. It was directly the result of representations to the Admiralty as to disciplinary difficulties with some of the Royal Artillery(Army) detachments serving in the bomb vessels." (Fraser, Carr-Laughton, Royal M.A.,I,pp. 1-2). It "was a later development of the dispute between the Navy and the Army in 1795 as to the disciplinary authority of naval officers in command over soldiers doing duty on board ships as Marines" (Id, pp. 4-8). The letters of Lord Nelson on this subject should be read. (Id,pp.17-23). The "amalgamation of the Royal Marine Artillery and the Royal Marine Light Infantry," into the The Royal Marines, occurred in 1923. (Fraser and Carr-Laughton, Royal Marine Artillery, II, 903).

159. (Cont.)
When this amalgamation was ordered in 1923, the titles "Gunner" and "Private" were dropped and the title "Marine" (abbreviation "Mne") adopted. (Id, p.905). For a history of the British Marines in the World War, see Volume Three of Britain's Sea Soldiers, by Sir H.E. Blumberg, K.C.B., Royal Marines. "It would be interesting to have a list of the variety of employments that have engaged the Marines of various nationalities. He has fought in every corner of the world in every military or naval enterprise of the last two and a half centuries of English history, and has taken an important part in every feature of American military history. But that statement by no means tells the story of his valuable service or of his qualifications for service." (M.C. Gaz., December, 1920, 359); For example, Marchesa Villeteschi in "A court in Exile," I, 158-159, tells of the employment of a hundred Marines raised by Lord Clare, in bringing the Pretender, Charles (son of James III and Clementina Sobreski) to Belle Isle to lead his adherents to battle for his throne, about the middle of the 18th century. Sir John Jervis, Earl of St. Vincent the famous English Admiral who died in 1823 was a strong believer in Marines if the three following statements by him mean anything: "Without a large body of Marines, we shall be long, very long, before an efficient fleet can be sent to sea." Again he said that he "never knew an appeal made to them for honour, courage, or loyalty that they did not more than realize my highest expectations. If ever the hour of real danger should come to England, they will be found the Country's Sheet Anchor." (Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 187; First page of every Globe and Laurel); Lord Charles Beresford said that "no flag could be made large enough to contain the particulars of the Marines' battle honors." (M. C. Gaz., December, 1916, 384-385); See also Major Donkin, Military Collections & Remarks, 134, 215-216.

160. James, Sea Kings and Naval Heroes, 65 et seq.; Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 19; see Rec. Bull., January, 1916, 7 for Dutch Marines.

161. See James, Sea Kings and Naval Heroes, 65 et seq.; Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 11, 13; Rec. Bull., January, 1916, 7.

162. There were five regiments of Marines raised in France between 1627 and 1719: "La Marine," 1627; "Royal Vaisseaux," 1635; "Royal Marine," 1669; Le Regiment Admiral - (Vermandois), 1669; "Swiss Marines," 1719; other Marine regiments came into being in 1685 which were known as "Compagnies franches de la Marine" (1690), Regiments pour le service des colonies d'Amerique" (1772), "Corps Royal d'Infanterie

162.(Cont.)
de Marine" (1774). During the Napoleonic period there was a Marine Artillery Corps and also the Marine de la Garde. But these men were actually seamen put into a military uniform and drilled as soldiers. At the Restoration the "Corps Royal d'Infanterie de Marine," was re-instituted. In 1831 they became the "Regiments de Marine," and in 1838 the "Corps d'Infanterie de Marine" was established. At present it is the Colonial Army and does not embark for sea service. (See Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 29); See also Victor Nicolas, Le Liure d'Or de L'Infanterie de la Marine; Lomier, Le Bataillon des Marins de la Garde, 1803-1815; Among the many famous officers of the old Infanterie Marine of France were Generals Gallieni, Gouraud, Mangin, and Colonel Marchand, the latter two having gained renown through their participation in the Fashouda Incident. These officers were Marines prior to the date of change of name to Infanterie Coloniale; See text at Note 140.

163. The Portuguese were the first to make any decided advance in the art of ship-building and navigation. They were the first, and for some time the only European nation that displayed any zeal for maritime discovery. (Cotterill and Little, Ships and Sailors, 98-99).

164. Jane, The Imperial Russian Navy, 152 shows that in 1859 the Russian Navy had "Marine artillery, 281 officers. Marines afloat, 131 officers. Personnel of all ranks, about 40,000 sailors and 20,000 Marines." Of the period of 1877 Jane at pp. 178-179 writes that "it will be noted that Marines no longer figure separately. In the period under review the Marines - who were analagous to the military element afloat in the British Navy at the time of the Armada, and in the French Navy during the Great War, rather than to Marines as we understand them - the 'Marines' were absorbed into the Navy generally."

165.

166.

167.

INDEX FOR CHAPTER I.
Volume I.

EARLY MARINES OF THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE

Material and Sources
of
Chapter II, Volume I
(Part One)

History of the United States Marine Corps

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(Notes and Index will be found in Part Two)

First Edition
September 1, 1932

FORENOTE

This compilation is not the final manuscript of this Chapter but represents only material and sources upon which it will be based. Since the information expressed in this History required original research, which has not been completed, it was decided to publish it first in mimeographed form. Considerable additional information will have been collected by the time it is desirable to write the final manuscript for printing. It is purposely made voluminous in order to make public, details of early Marine Corps History that obviously will not be included in a printed work because of lack of space. The plan provides for seven large volumes divided into appropriate chapters.

As a matter of convenience this chapter is divided into two parts.

The following form of citation is suggested if it is desired to cite, either in published works or manuscript, any information contained herein:-

(McClellan, Hist., U.S.M.C., 1st ed., I, Ch. II, p —)

CHAPTER II, VOLUME ONE

EARLY MARINES OF THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE.

Almost three centuries intervened between October 12, 1492, when Christopher Columbus discovered America,[1] and our first Fourth of July in 1776. Those 284 years, while not as personal to us as the more than 150 years that we have been the United States, are American years just the same. And so are those countless years before the coming of the Europeans.

The period beginning with Columbus and ending with the American Revolution, produced American sea characters or heroic mould from whom the American Marines have inherited basic tradition and heroic spirit. The achievements of those pioneer Americans must be related or this history would be incomplete.

A Marine is a soldier who serves at sea on a war vessel either as part of its crew or as part of a military expedition under naval jurisdiction. He has been called a "Maritime Soldier," a "Sea Soldier," and a "Soldier of the Ocean."[2] The American Marines are so inextricably interwoven with matters of the sea that their history begins with the earliest fighting-men afloat in the Americas, whoever they were.[3] The duties

performed by our early American fighters, on board ship and in overseas expeditions, were similar to the services assigned American Marines of today.

A study of history brings the student to the conclusion that whether a soldier is a Marine depends, not upon the name given him, but upon the character of duty such soldier performs coupled with his familiarity with the sea and his being under naval jurisdiction. There have been fighting-men performing the duties of Marines from the first date that fighting-men served on ships or in expeditions of a naval status.[4] These Sea Soldiers are best prepared to carry out their missions when they are trained to the ways of the sea and an integral part of the naval machine.

The first Chapter has set forth much concerning the ancient Marines of the Eastern Hemisphere. The American past, also, has much to disclose. America had its prehistoric man, and its ancient civilizations, as had the other continents.

We have read much of Europeans discovering America, but little did the Norsemen, Columbus and all of Europe know, that centuries before making their discoveries, America had its civilizations which rank with any of those in what is termed the Old World. There have been

civilizations in the Western Hemisphere as ancient as those of the Eastern Hemisphere, and within a century our school children will be studying of them with as much interest and belief as they now read the history of Eastern Hemisphere ancients.[5]

Toltecs, Aztecs and others have appeared. In Central America and Yucatan there remains evidences of an ancient American civilization which we today call Mayan. America is now wresting from the silent centuries their fascinating romance of amazing civilizations, which, of course, had their navies with Maritime Soldiers.

America has a prehistory extending far back into the early centuries of human development. The steps of her progress and the successes achieved are as interesting and instructive as any attained by the renowned human groups of the Old World.

History's first page of ancient America has not been written. The last continent discovered by the present civilization will naturally be the last to unearth and piece together its past.

Who discovered America and the date will never be known. A glance at the map will show that the stepping stones from Norway to Continental America are the Orkneys, Shetlands, Faroes, Iceland, and Greenland. It

was over this route that the first Europeans travelled to America.

When Iceland was first discovered, and by whom the discovery was made, is not definitely known. Traditions which have been preserved by old Icelandic writers credit the Norsemen Naddod and the Swede Gardar with the discovery but the accounts do not agree. A third Viking voyager named Floki Vilgerdsson visited Iceland. These three voyages are supposed to have been made about 860-870.[6]

About the year 1,000 the voyages between Greenland, Norway and Iceland led to the discovery of Vinland as the mainland of North America was then called. Both Biarne or Bjarni, and Lief Ericson, son of Eric the Red, have been given the glory of discovering America.[7]

It also is not improbable that early voyagers from China, Japan, India, or Africa, may have been blown to the coasts of America. "These Chinese say they discovered America in A.D. 500 and called it Fusan, after a tree which grew there."[8] It is very likely that America was discovered centuries before the birth of Columbus.[9]

Welsh records and traditions declare that Madoc sailed westward from Iceland in 1170 and established

a colony in a "fruitful country," supposed to be America and that he left his colonists there. Madoc with a larger colony returned to America in ten vessels; but neither he nor his expedition was ever heard of again.[10]

The last visit to Vinland, according to the Sagas, was in 1347. After that, all is oblivion until 1492.

Following the hardy Norsemen came Admiral Christopher Columbus.[11] The full list of sailors and landsmen on board the Santa Maria, Pinta and Nina on the first expeditions of Columbus was ninety, according to Las Casas and one hundred and twenty, according to Oviedo. Included in this number was William Harris of Galway, Ireland.[12]

We have already seen that European ships of the 15th Century carried soldiers accustomed to the ways of the sea; and the three ships of Columbus were no exception to that rule. Descriptions and illustrations of Columbus' cruises show conclusively that he had "Fighting Men of the Sea" with him.[13]

San Salvador, now called Watling Island by some, and Guanahani by its original Indian inhabitants[14] was discovered by Columbus on October 12, 1492. On his four voyages Columbus touched at Cuba, Haiti, Virgin Islands, Porto Rico, Nicaragua, and many other spots

where American Marines have been stationed. Among such places are the northeastern cape of Nicaragua named by Columbus,Gracias a Dios, northern coast of Honduras, and La Navidad the first European settlement in America.

Often have the American Marines crossed the lines of Columbus' voyages in the West Indies and Central America. After frequently visiting the waters of Santo Domingo, for the protection of American lives and property, they occupied that Republic from 1916 to 1924 and guarded the bones claimed to be those of Admiral Columbus which up to this date rest in a silver casket at the Santo Domingo City Cathedral. The old dead tree to which Columbus is said to have moored his vessels is another relic in Santo Domingo City. The ruins of Diego Columbus' castle are there and many other reminders of Columbus.

Columbus visited Guantanamo Bay, Cuba, the scene of peace and war activities of American Marines. He set sail from Isabela on April 24, 1494, touched at Monte Cristi, and anchored at La Navidad, arrived at St. Nicholas on the 29th, sailed past Point Maysi (Eastern point of Cuba), crossed the channel and "anchored in a harbor to which, from its size, he gave the name of Puerto Grande, at present called Guantanamo.

The entrance was narrow and winding, though deep; the harbor expanded within like a beautiful lake, in the bosom of the wild and mountainous country, covered with trees, some of them in blossom, others bearing fruit. * * * Columbus landed * * * the Spaniards * * * beheld about seventy of the natives collected on the top of a lofty rock * * * Leaving this harbor on the first of May, the Admiral continued to the westward, along a mountainous coast, * * * came to another gulf or deep bay, narrow at the entrance and expanding within, * * * probable was the same at present called St. Jago de Cuba (Santiago), Columbus anchored." * * * On the following day, the 3rd of May, he turned his prow directly south.[15]

After Columbus came many discoverers and explorers. Since discovery and combat went hand in hand their vessels carried Maritime Soldiers.

At least two of American birth and partly of American blood, formed part of Magellan's expedition that first circumnavigated the globe. Magellan's Fleet consisting of 270 men in the San Antonio, Trinidad, Conception, Victoria and Santiago, sailed in September, 1519, and discovered Guam on March 6, 1521, 377 years before American Marines garrisoned that Island.[16] On March

16th Samar, made conspicuous in Marine Corps history by Waller's Marines in 1902, was sighted. Magellan fell in battle with the Filipinos on the Island of Mactan about a month later.[17]

The voyage of Sir Francis Drake around the world in 1577-1580 cannot be overlooked, for his vessels carried the first Sea Soldiers to the West Coast of what is now our country. Drake may have visited San Francisco Bay but the authorities are generally against the claim. It was his visit to the Oregon Coast in 1579 that England based her claims to that region many years later.[18] In 1585 or 1586 Drake arrived in the waters of Santo Domingo and decided to capture the city. He carried on his vessels a large number of soldiers and "Gentlemen Adventurers",[19] that formed what today we call an "Expedition of Marines." In fact Drake's Expedition did not differ much in principle from the expedition of American Marines which occupied Santo Domingo in 1916. A secret landing was made at "a practicable landing-place some ten miles from the harbor" of Santo Domingo City. "Drake ordered the whole of the troops into the boats and small craft of the fleet," that is in pinnaces and other ship-boats. "When all were embarked," Drake "placed himself at the head of the flotilla and in per-

son piloted it through the surf." He then anchored his fleet off the town, bombarded it, lowered his boats as if to land, all of which caused the Spaniards to believe that the main landing was to be made at that time. Immediately after, however, "a loud alarm of drums and trumpets upon the right rear told" the Spaniards "of the trap into which they had fallen; with music playing and standards flying, Carleill's force to the number of over a thousand men were seen advancing in two columns," which after a brief fight captured Santo Domingo City.[20]

American Indians on the sea coasts, rivers, and lakes, furnish early examples of American fighting men afloat. Most of their large war canoes, like the Greek and Persian galleys, carried warriors in addition to those who paddled. Battles were fought by fleets of Indian canoes.

Marines are interested in the attempted settlement by Jean Ribault in 1562 at "Charles Fort,"[21] for it was supposed that its site was the present location of Parris Island, S.C. Ribault left "thirty gentlemen, soldiers and Marines," at Charles Fort under Captain Albert and then sailed away.[22] Ruins including some cedar timber were discovered at Parris Island in 1923. These, at the time, were identified as being used in the palisades of Charles Fort. The timbers were presented to the State of

South Carolina in 1924 and the Senate of that State passed a resolution of thanks.[23] However, continued research, seems to have convinced historians that the ruins on Parris Island are of Spanish origin instead of French.[24]

The first permanent English settlement in America was established in 1607 at Jamestown, Virginia.[25]

Captain John Smith arrived in Virginia early in 1607. The following year "in an open Barge nearly three tuns burthen" with "Fourteen Adventurers" aboard he sailed up the Potomac, past Quantico Creek, as far as the mouth of Occoquan Creek.[26] These "Fourteen Adventurers" were the Marines of that period. Little did they know, as they floated past Quantico Creek, that about three centuries later the American Marines would establish their main base there.[27]

Other expeditions later went up the Potomac. In 1623 Harry Spelman, on the Tiger, ascended the river to a point near the site of Washington and there lost his scalp and life to the Indians.[28] In this century some thrifty Scotch sailed up the Potomac and came to anchor in Quantico Creek. Near its mouth they discovered a beautiful meadow and there founded a substantial town which they named Dumfries.[29]

The history of America from 1613 to 1775 is featured

with maritime military expeditions of Americans to Canada and the West Indies. Most of them were similar to the many composed of American Marines since 1775. British Marines formed part of some of the expeditions and both these Marines, and the American fighting men performed the same character of duty. In 1740 and 1741 practically the entire personnel of the American part of Vernon's force operating against Cartagena and in Cuba was carried on the lists as British Marines. The American Colonies also possessed warships and commissioned privateers on board of which American Marines served. The pre-Revolutionary naval history of America is filled with incidents suggesting the American Marines.

What is described as the first battle between Europeans in America was fought in 1613. In that year an expedition under Captain Samuel Argall with eleven small vessels[30] was despatched by Sir Thomas Dale, Governor of Virginia, to the coast of Nova Scotia. Argall reduced the French post of St. Sauveur, on the island of Mount Desert, not far from Penobscot Bay.[31]

On his return to Virginia, Captain Argall, with three good ships, was sent against the French in Acadia and he laid waste to the whole of their possessions.[32] He "swooped upon Port Royal and burned it to the ground,

carrying off livestock as booty and the inhabitants as prisoners".[31] The French, however, later reestablished themselves at Port Royal [31] and remained in possession of Penobscot for many years.[31]

In 1602 Gosnold in the Concord carrying eight Mariners, twelve planters, and "Twelve Adventurers" - the Marines of that day - discovered and named Cape Cod, Martha's Vineyard and other points. Gosnold built a fort and intended a settlement on the Elizabeth Islands but he could not persuade anybody to remain.[32]

The Mayflower arrived in America in 1620.[33] On board that famous vessel there was a detachment of Pilgrims into which Miles Standish,"a man of very little stature yet of a very hot and angry temper,"[34] instilled military discipline and a fighting spirit. Illustrations of the Mayflower show these Puritan Sea-Soldiers in armor and bearing fire-arms, formed on deck. One would expect the caption of the picture to state that they were the "Marines of the Mayflower."[35]

Henry Hudson aboard the Half Moon visited the Hudson in 1609 and shortly after the Dutch settled New Amsterdam. They made settlements in Connecticut in 1633.

"The first decked vessel built within the old United

States, of which we have any account, was constructed by Schipper Adrian Block, on the banks of the Hudson, and probably within the present limits of New York, during the summer of 1614" (or 1644), wrote J. Fenimore Cooper. "This vessel De Laet terms a yacht, and describes as having been of the dimensions of thirty-eight feet keel, forty-four and a half feet on deck, and eleven feet beam. In this yacht, Block passed through Hell Gate, into the Sound, and steering eastward, he discovered a small island, which he named after himself; going as far as Cape Cod, by the way of the Vineyard passage."[36]

The English colonists had engaged in naval operations against the French, the Dutch, and the Indians but in 1635 a bitter naval battle was fought between Americans of Maryland and Virginia. It was an unique struggle and well deserves a place in history of the American Maritime Soldiers.[37] William Claiborne of Virginia established a trading post on Kent Island, not far from the present Annapolis.

Lord Baltimore claimed jurisdiction over Kent Island and Claiborne refused to acknowledge the claim. Each side felt that its claim was the better and prepared to defend it with force.[37]

In September, 1634, Lord Baltimore instructed Leonard

Calvert to seize and imprison Claiborne at St. Mary's and take possession of Kent Island. In the spring of 1635 Claiborne sent out the armed trading pinnace Long Trail and the Maryland boats St. Helen and St. Margaret captured her.[37]

Claiborne, (Cleburn or Clayborne) on Kent Island, next despatched his armed sloop Cockatrice, commanded by Lieutenant Radcliffe Warren, manned with a crew of thirteen, several of whom served as Sea Soldiers, to recover the Long Trail and his property. Warren fell in with the St. Margaret and St. Helen in the Pocomoke on April 23, 1635, and a desperate naval battle resulted. Lieutenant Warren, John Bellson, and William Dawson of Virginia, and William Ashmore of Maryland were killed. The Marylanders were repulsed.[37]

"The first engagement that probably ever occurred between inhabitants of the American Colonies and enemies afloat," wrote J. Fenimore Cooper, "was a conflict between John Gallup, who was engaged in" trading for skins with Indians, in a sloop of twenty tons, and some Indians, during the Pequot War, in 1635.[38]

John Oldham, a trader, was murdered by the Indians near Block Island and his sloop captured.[38] John Gallup was proceeding from Connecticut to Boston, in his little

sloop manned by himself, one other man, and two boys. Among the islands that form a chain between Long Island and Connecticut, Gallup saw a vessel like his own, and recognized it as Oldham's sloop. It was full of Indians. Suspecting that they had murdered Oldham, bore down upon them, and fired duck shot so thick among them that he soon cleared the deck. Gallup then rammed the sloop three times, bored her with his anchor, and raked her fore and aft with his shot. Finally Gallup boarded and recaptured the vessel.[38]

Between 1613, when Argall visited Acadie and 1654, when it was subjugated to the English, that country was the cause and scene of much fighting. Expeditions, of the nature that the Marine Corps would now organize today for Latin-American service, were sent there from the New England Colonies. War vessels of the American Colonies either accompanied these expeditions or carried small detachments of soldiers used to the ways of the sea.[39]

In 1645 a vessel built at Cambridge, Mass., had 14 guns and was manned with 30 men. On a cruise near Gibraltar she fell in with a rover of Barbary, carrying 20 guns and 70 men. They fought all day and finally the rover's rudder was damaged, the New England ship

escaping. This was the first regular naval combat.[40]

An American ship of 150 tons built in Rhode Island in 1646 by New Haven gentlemen gave us an early, if not our earliest, "mystery of the sea." She sailed from New Haven in January of 1647, and from that date not a vestige has been seen or heard of her.[41] She sank without trace.

It was not in the nature of things that the Dutch of New Netherlands and the English of New England could get along without some friction. Indeed, "the first regular cruisers employed by the American Colonists," wrote Cooper, owed "their existence to misunderstandings with the Dutch." The Americans of New Haven built a vessel in Rhode Island in 1646, but she was lost at sea. Shortly after "a small cruiser, carrying 10 guns and 40 men was employed by the United Colonies of Hartford and New Haven to cruise in Long Island Sound with a view to prevent the encroachments of the Dutch and to keep open the communication with the settlement they had made on the opposite shore."[42]

War between England and Holland came in 1651. While the Dutch colony at Manhattan was militarily too feeble to annoy New England, nevertheless, due to rumors of the Dutch Americans at New Amsterdam urging the Indians to attack the Americans of New England the latter prepared for

war. Peace was had before this force of Americans could be used against the Dutch and it was used to dislodge the French from Penobscot and St. Johns, which was accomplished in 1654.[43]

Having narrowly escaped losing her own American territory, Holland, in 1655, absorbed the Swedish possessions along the Delaware. Then in 1664 all of Holland's holdings were taken from her by a British Fleet and New Amsterdam became New York.[44] This conquest brought a realization to America that England had command of the sea.[45] This was the year that the British Marines came into existence. "A bronze memorial tablet in honor of Richard Nicolls, first British Colonial Governor of New York was unveiled" on June 8, 1931, "on the steps of the Custom House," New York City. "The tablet is on the approximate site of a corner of the Dutch fort which Governor Nicolls captured" in 1644.[46]

Bacon's Rebellion in Virginia in 1675 was but one of the embers that a century later flamed forth to consume an unjust power that could not understand the new idea. It was the expression, by force, of American thought. When tax-payers are denied suffrage and informed that they cannot defend their property from Indians, direct action is their only weapon. That was

Virginia in 1675 and Nathaniel Bacon was the American leader, called the "first successful American Rebel." To Marines, as Americans, this is an interesting part of our history but in view of the use of naval force by both sides, and of English Marines by Great Britain, it has an added interest.

In direct opposition to the orders of Governor Sir William Berkeley, Bacon fought Indians defensively. Berkeley declared him little better than a rebel. As Bacon was returning to Jamestown "in a sloop with 30 armed followers he was intercepted by an armed ship," the Adam and Eve. Shots were exchanged and Bacon was captured but later pardoned. Bacon, however, continued his operations contrary to the ideas of Berkeley. Berkeley proclaimed him a rebel and traitor. Bacon occupied Jamestown with three or four hundred armed men. Then joined by one Bland who seized a ship, increased her armament to 16 guns and in company with a bark of 4 guns, sailed with 250 armed men to attack Berkeley. This expedition was a failure. A short time after, in September, 1676, Berkeley entered the James River "with two ships and some sixteen sloops" and reoccupied Jamestown. Before Bacon could conclude his task, illness and worry killed this "first successful American Rebel." He died in October, 1676.[47]

Bacon's Rebellion caused the King of England to despatch to America what was known as the "Virginia Expedition." Towards the autumn of 1676, "information reached England of serious disturbances having broken out in the Colony of Virginia, consequent on certain alleged unjust taxes having been imposed, and also on the friction arising from the working of the Navigation Act.[48]

On October 3, 1676, orders were issued for a provisional battalion of 1,000 men to be raised for service in Virginia. The British Marines contributed three officers and one company.[49]

The colours of this company of Marines carried a "field white waved with lemmon equally mixt with ye Red Crosses quite through with J. D. Y. in cypher in gold."[50] The expedition embarked in merchant transports on November 24, 1676, and sailed that day for Virginia.[51]

Bacon had died before the arrival of this Expedition. After a stay of nearly two years in Virginia, during which time it was engaged in no active service, the battalion was recalled. It arrived back in England about April, 1678. A large number of these British Marines, however, remained in America as colonists while twenty of them were left there to form the nucleus "of a local military force."[52]

The war with the Indians, commonly called King Philip's War brought little if any action afloat and with the death of Philip in 1676 the danger was over.[53]

The tidings of the success of William III, Prince of Orange, who succeeded James II arrived in Boston in the Spring of 1689.[54] Governor Andros was imprisoned, the frigate Rose captured, militia organized under its officers, a council of safety formed, and Bradstreet re-proclaimed governor. War between England and France was entered into in April, 1689. It extended to America where it was known as King William's War,[55] and lasted from 1689 to 1697.

An expedition under Sir William Phips took Port Royal in Acadia.[56]

Phips was selected to lead a sea attack against Quebec. The fleet composed of "merchantmen and fishing vessels," sailed August 6, 1690, from Boston and was before Quebec about the middle of October, 1690. It was unsuccessful, due to lack of the "surprise" element; the land army failing; the shortage of ammunition; the late setting out; and sickness. "The success of the expedition depended on the blow being struck suddenly," but after arriving in the vicinity the French were afforded three weeks in which to prepare.[56]

Portsmouth, N. H., well-known to all American Marines, was the scene of many incidents in colonial times. The Faulkland, built at Portsmouth, N. H., in 1690, is the earliest man-of-war constructed in America.[57]

The Ship Essex (Captain John Beal) of Salem sailing from Bilbao, Spain had a battle at sea in 1695 and lost coxswain John Samson. A little later the Salem Packet captured a French ship off Newfoundland.[58]

In 1702, after the death of King William, Queen Anne declared war against France and Spain. Holland was also drawn into the war. Fighting soon began in America and peace was not restored until the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713.[59] The Americans assisted on both the sea and land. In July, 1703 the brigantine Charles (Daniel Powman) was fitted out at Boston as a privateer to cruise against the French and Spanish, with whom Great Britain was at war.[60]

There was the galley New York fitted out in 1705 by Captain Regnier Tongrelow as a New York privateer. Also the privateer Dragon under Captain Gineks and the privateers of Captain Zacharias and Captain Nat Burches.[61]

The Spaniards conceiving that South Carolina properly belonged to the Floridas, undertook an expedition against Charleston, in 1706, with four ships of war and

a galley. A commission of vice-admiral was immediately given to Lieutenant-Colonel Rhett. He hoisted his flag in the Crown galley, and several ships that happened to be in port were hastily manned and armed. In the mean time the enemy had arrived and surrounded the place, but meeting with some repulses on shore, Colonel Rhett got under way to engage the hostile squadron when the latter retired with precipitation. Hearing of a large enemy ship on the coast, a few days after the fleet had disappeared, Colonel Rhett went in quest of her with two small vessels and succeeded in capturing her.[62]

From an early day the possession of Port Royal in Acadie appears to have been a favourite object with the colonists, most probably from the great interest they felt in the fisheries. We have already seen that expeditions were sent against this place in the earliest wars, while we are now to find no less than three undertaken, with the same object, between 1707 and 1712.[63]

The first of these expeditions, set on foot in 1707, was almost purely of Colonial origin[63] Rhode Island, New Hampshire and Massachusetts contributed but Connecticut held aloof. Colonel John March was in command of the land forces. The fleet sailed from Boston, May 13, 1707, in twenty-three transports and whale-boats. It was es-

corted by the man-of-war Deptford (Stulkley) and the Massachusetts Province galley (Southack). Arrived at Port Royal on the 26th. Seven hundred men were immediately landed and enjoyed an initial success. On the 29th they were attacked by a body of Indians and about 60 Canadians. The latter had arrived, just before, to man a privateer which lay in the harbor. They killed two of the English and then retreated. It was finally decided that Port Royal was "more than a match for our raw undisciplined Army," and on June 6th or 7th the whole force was reembarked. Upon returning to Boston the expedition was strongly criticized. "Captain Stuckley of the Deptford gave an account of the" place's strength, and defended the retirement.[64]

The second attempt was not made until the year 1709, when an enterprise on a larger scale was planned. A fleet and five regiments of British regulars were to be sent out from England. Massachusetts and Rhode Island Militia were to join. Montreal was to be attacked by land from Albany by militia from New York, Connecticut, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, and Indians.[65] The maritime part of the expedition was abandoned, after waiting three months in the port of Boston for the British ships that were to escort it, and to aid in subduing the place. The attack on Montreal was also given up, for

want of the expected co-operation.[63]

The third attempt was made in 1710 when Colonel Francis Nicholson, of the British Marine forces, was entrusted with the command of the military part of the expedition. On this occasion the preparations were made conjointly by the Crown and the provinces, the latter furnishing the transports and several cruisers. The fleet consisted, in all, of thirty-six sail; three fourth-rates, two fifth-rates, five frigates, a bomb ketch, the Province galley, and twenty-four transports[63] "fourteen transports in the pay of Massachusetts, five of Connecticut, two of New Hampshire, and three of Rhode Island." There "was a regiment of Marines commanded by Colonel Reading," and four regiments raised in New England, two commanded by Sir Charles Hobby and Colonel Tailer of Massachusetts Bay, one by Colonel Whiting of Connecticut and one by Colonel Walton of New Hampshire.[66] The British Marines were lodged on Castle Island,[67] in Boston Harbor, until the expedition was ready. This was a notable event because it is believed to be the first time that reinforcements were sent direct to the Northern Colonies "for only a single expedition." They were not in America for permanent garrison service but for "expeditionary" service.[68]

The expedition sailed from Boston on the 18th of September, arriving off Port Royal on the 24th, and landed on the 25th. On the 29th there was the flicker of a white flag from the French lines. It was a flag of truce from the French Governor bearing a letter stating that the ladies in the fort "did not at all appreciate the rude salutes of the English shells" and requested permission, which was granted, for them the "hospitality of the British Camp where they would be out of harm's way."[69] On the 1st of October, "a company of American troops was formed up on either side of the main entrance of the fort," and the French commander "came out and handed over the keys of the fort."[69] Its name was changed to Annapolis by which appellation it is yet known.[63]

Stimulated by this success, a still more important attempt was got up in 1711, against the French possessions on the banks of the St. Lawrence. England now appeared disposed to put forth her power in earnest, and a fleet of fifteen sail, twelve of which were sent directly from England, and three of which had been stationed on the coast, was put under the orders of vice-admiral Sir Hoveden Walker, for that purpose. In this fleet were several ships of the line, and it was accompanied by

forty transports and six store vessels. Five of the veteran regiments that had served under Marlborough, were sent out with the fleet, and two regiments raised in New England being added to them, the land forces amounted to between 6,000 and 7,000 men.[63] British Marines formed a part of the expedition.[70]

After considerable delay, the fleet sailed on the 30th of July, 1711, when the Governor of Massachusetts ordered a fast to be observed every Thursday, until the results should be known. On the 14th of August, the ships entered the St. Lawrence, and on the 18th the admiral, in order to collect his transports, put into the Bay of Gaspee. Here he remained until the 20th, when the fleet proceeded. On the 20th the ships were off soundings, out of sight of land, and enveloped in a fog, with a gale blowing. The fleet now brought to with the ships' heads to the southward. Notwithstanding this precaution, it was soon discovered that the whole of them were in imminent jeopardy among the rocks, islands, and currents of the north shore, which was, moreover, a lee shore. Some of the vessels saved themselves by anchoring, among which was the Edgar, the admiral's own ship; but eight transports were lost, together with a thousand people, and the expedition was abandoned.[71]

The Admiral now dismissed the provincial troops and vessels, and sailed for England with the remainder of the fleet. These signal disasters led to loud complaints and to bitter recriminations between the English and American officers. To the latter was attributed a fatal loss of time, in raising their levies and making other preparations which brought the expedition too late in the season, and they were also accused of furnishing incompetent pilots. On the part of the Americans, the Admiral, and the English commanders in general, were said to be opinionated, indisposed to take advice and regarded the provincials with superciliousness.[71]

The Admiral threw the responsibility of having hove-to the fleet on the pilots, who, in their turn, declared that it was done contrary to their advice. It is in favour of the Americans, that none of their own vessels, except one small one was lost, and that the crew of this vessel was saved.[71]

This war was ended in 1713 by the treaty of Utrecht, which established the cession of Acadia to the English by its "ancient limits,"[72] and for more than 30 years there was peace between the Americans and French in America. The French prepared, however, by building a fortress on Cape Breton Island, calling it Louisburg.

They also built a chain of forts from the Great Lakes down the valleys of the Ohio and Mississippi.

After the Peace of Utrecht most of the American colonies maintained small armed vessels for the protection of their coasts and commerce, particularly against pirates. Some of their commanders afterwards rose to more or less distinction either at home or in the British service.[73]

The American Colonies enjoyed peace for three-fourths of the period from 1713 to the Revolution. In war-time their fishing fleets were dismantled, but the fishermen found exciting employment on armed merchantmen bearing letters of marque and reprisal.[74]

The letters of Governor Alexander Spotswood, of Virginia, in 1710 and 1711, show his interest in naval matters. On July 31, 1710 he wrote that he had written to "Collo. Lee, Naval Officer of Potomack" to send four prisoners via the Deptford or Bedford galley.[75] On August 13, 1710 he wrote that he had "sent orders to the Naval Officers" to join Captain Clifton, and with reference to "the Potomack Ships" joining that officer. On May 5, 1711 he wrote to the "Commissioners of the Customs" regarding the "Naval Officer of Potomack", the "Naval Officer of the Eastern Shore" and the clearing

of the Frigate Robinson from the Rappa Hannock River.[75]

European wars gave rise to several abnormal forms of naval enterprises by Americans. One of them was a privateering that was closely akin to piracy. The peace of Utrecht in 1713 closed for a time the opportunity for legitimate privateering, but it soon developed again upon the outbreak of the war with Spain in 1739.[76]

Piracy, however, flourished in peace and war, and had to be combatted by the Americans on the sea. American Soldiers of the Sea on the Colonial war vessels did their share in routing these buccaneers.[77]

The Caribbean and Gulf of Mexico area was of great commercial interest even in the days of sailing ships in the 18th century.[78]

Cartagena and Havana were the two great bases established by Spain at that time. A smaller defended harbor was at Porto Bello near Colon where merchandise was exchanged for the gold drawn from Spanish America. The usual route of sailing ships made Cartagena and Havana objects of attack when Spain was at war.[79]

When Great Britain declared war against Spain in 1739 plans called for attacks on these three ports. In America this war was known as King George's War. It lasted from 1739 to 1748.[80] Many Americans fought as

part of the forces under Admiral Vernon operating against Cartagena and Cuba and they also furnished many transports in these expeditions. They fought against the Spanish in Central America. They also sent out many privateers[81] to prey on the enemies' commerce.

Henry Cabot Lodge wrote that "the cooperation of Virginia and her sister colonies with the Mother Country in the fruitless expedition against Carthagena" served "merely as one more step in the development of the union."[82]

This war involves the story of a group of Americans known as "Spotswood's Marines" or more properly as "Gooch's Marines."[83]

Gooch's Marines were part of the British Marines' organization.[84]

The year 1664 is assigned as the birth-year of the British Marines' organization.[85] In 1713 came the Peace of Utrecht. This was the "signal for the disbandment and breakup of the Marine establishment." Only four invalid companies were left to represent the gallant organization that had "done and suffered so much for its country."[86]

War between Spain and Great Britain occurred in 1739.[87] In his address to the House of Commons when he opened Parliament on November 15th of that year the King

stated that "as in the prosecution of this war a number of soldiers to serve on board the Fleet may be requisite, I have judged it proper, that a body of Marines should be raised, and have directed the estimates for this purpose to be likewise prepared and laid before you."[88] In the following month an Order in Council decreed the formation of six Marine regiments, each with an authorized strength of 1,100.[89] Increases followed,[89] and among them were Gooch's American Marines.

The records of correspondence between the British Home Office and the Admiralty[90] contain much material about Gooch's Marines. An Order of January 5, 1740, (after stating that information of the War with Spain had been sent by the Duke of Newcastle to the Governors of "Massachusetts Bay, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Virginia, North Carolina, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Connecticut and Rhode Island")[91] continued:

"And His Grace signified His Majesty's pleasure to the said Governors, that they should forthwith make the proper dispositions for raising as many men as they should be able to procure within their Governments and as the King intended that the troops to be raised in America should be commanded by Colonel Spotswood, the whole, however, after they should have joined the Regular

Troops under the command of Lord Cathcart, they should confer or correspond with Colonel Spotswood, if they had an opportunity, upon everything that might relate to the performance of this service. That Col. Blakeny, who was appointed Adjutant-General, would set out from hence as soon as possible, with His Majesty's Letters and Authorities for making the said levies and that he would carry with him a considerable number of Arms, some hampers of cloathing for the Soldiers, and what money or credit should be judged necessary for this service. The Duke of Newcastle likewise acquainted the said Governors that it was His Majesty's intention to give all proper encouragement to the New Levies, by ordering them to be supplied with Arms and a proper cloathing, and to be paid by His Majesty, with an assurance of their coming in for their share of any Booty that might be taken from the Enemy, and their being sent back to their respective habitations when the Service should be over, unless they should desire to settle themselves elsewhere, and that His Majesty would order to be sent by Colonel Blakeney a number of blank Commissions to be given to them (the said Governors) to the officers that were to command the Troops under Colonel Spotswood. That the King did not think proper to confine them to any particular number of men to be

raised within their respective Governments, His Majesty depending upon their care and zeal for his service. That they would procure as many as they possibly could. That they should be considering in what manner to provide Transport and Provisions, and even if it were necessary, should secure them out of hand for such a number of men as they should judge (they) might be able to get within their respective Governments."[92]

"His Majesty signed a Warrant to the Master General of the Ordnance, for preparing and delivering to Col. Blakeney, who was sent on a special commission, 3,000 muskets fixed with bayonets and other ordnance stores," on January 31, 1740.[92]

Orders were given on March 28, 1740 for providing in Ireland a sufficient quantity of Salt Provisions for 3,000 men for one month and for having a vessel to carry the same to Virginia.[92]

On April 2, 1740 orders to the various Governors for raising troops "were signed, which were to consist of Companys of 100 men each including 4 Sergts, 4 Corporals, 2 Drummers besides Comd Officers, which were to be 1 Capt, 2 Lieuts, and an Ensign, His Mat^y reserving to himself the nomination of the Field and Staff Officers and of one Lieut for each Company, who would be men of

experience in Service, and sent from hence for their assistance."[92]

"Early the next year (1741), three additional Marine regiments were raised in New York, the command of the whole being entrusted to Colonel Alexander Spottiswoode of Virginia, Colonel William Blakeney being appointed Adjutant General. This Colonial force was not long afterward formed into a single regiment of four battalions under the command of Colonel William Gooch (of Virginia), and is generally referred to as 'Gooch's Marines,' taking rank in the Army List as the 43d Regiment. As the British Government had decided to make a serious attack upon the Spanish possessions in America, the determination to raise a force of Marines near the scene of action is easily accounted for."[89]

From Cannon's Records, and the Gentleman's Magazine of 1741, we learn that the Field Officers of these American Marines and Subalterns were appointed by the King, and that their Captains of Companies were nominated by the American Provinces. "It was supposed that from climate, the natives of the American Continent were better calculated for the service upon which they were destined than Europeans." "Three Regiments of Foot," recorded the contemporary Gentlemen's Magazine, "of a thousand

men each, are raising with all speed in our American colonies, and will consist of natives or of those enured to the climate. Their general rendezvous is to be at New York, where the Royal Standard is set up."[89]

"The American companies were chiefly raised by the interest and at the charge of their respective Captains, many of whom were members of the Assemblies in the Provinces where they resided; others lived upon their own plantations, and had commands in the Militia. His Majesty was pleased to send to New York thirty young gentlemen, under the direction of Brigadier Blakeney, to serve in the Corps as Lieutenants; they had carried arms either in the Old Corps at home, or in the Scotch Regiments in the Dutch service, and were most of them cadets of good families in North Britain."[89]

Hart in Admirals of the Caribbean sets the strength as follows: "Massachusetts (five companies); Rhode Island (two companies); Connecticut (two companies); New York (five companies); New Jersey (three companies); Pennsylvania (eight companies); Maryland (three companies); Virginia (four companies); North Carolina (four companies); Among other American officers was Colonel Laurence Washington."[93]

Tobias Smollet[94] wrote that these Americans were raised according to "a plan" that "was proposed by Colonel

Spotswood[95] governor of Virginia," in consequence of which he was empowered to raise a regiment of Americans, consisting of four battalions, to serve under his command against the Spaniards; but, he dying before the scheme could be put into execution, this regiment was given to Colonel Gooch, who succeeded him in the government of that colony. The Lieutenants were appointed in England, at the recommendation of Lord Cathcart, who commanded all the land forces on the intended expedition and he chose for this service young gentlemen of family, chiefly North Britons who had learned the rudiments of the military art in Holland and other foreign services, and consequently were the better qualified to discipline a newly raised regiment. These had commissions signed by His Majesty's own hand; but the captains and ensigns were appointed by the governors of the different provinces in which the companies were levied, according to a power vested in them by the King for that purpose.[96]

So, in carrying out this plan of Spotswood, three additional regiments of Royal British Marines were raised in America early in 1740. It was supposed that the natives of that continent were better calculated for the service in that climate than the Europeans, and they were clothed in a manner well adapted for their duties. Their uniform

was camlet coats,[97] brown linen waistcoats, and canvas trousers. The colonels, lieutenant-colonels, and other commissioned officers were appointed by the Crown, except the captains of companies, who were nominated by the American provinces. Colonel Alexander Spotswood of Virginia, was commandant of the whole.[98]

Colonel Spotswood,[95] on January 5, 1740, was informed that it was His Majesty's intention that the Troops to be raised in America should be commanded by him. He was therefore to cooperate with the several Governors for the better execution of His Majesty's orders. But if, on account of his health he should not be able to perform that service, he was to send these orders to the Lieutenant-Governor of Virginia (William Gooch), who was in that case to look upom them as directed to himself and to act accordingly with which the said Lieutenant-Governor was acquainted.[92]

A commission was signed on April 2, 1740 "for Alexander Spotswood Esqr: To be a Colonel of a Regt of Foot to be raised in America for His Majesty's Service, to consist of 30 Companies." Commissions were also signed for four majors, blank commissions for thirty captains, for sixty lieutenants of which twenty-eight were in blank, for thirty ensigns in blank, and for four adjutants and a surgeon.[92]

Colonel Blakeney was dispatched on April 7, 1740 with the various Commissions to which reference has been made, and "an Order was likewise sent to the Lt Govr of New York to make a draught of Soldiers out of the Independent Companies there, to be employed as Sergts in the Regt of Foot to be raised in America."[92]

A letter dated "Whitehall, April 18, 1740," addressed to Admiral Vernon, announcing the despatch of the expedition under Lord Cathcart, stated that "directions have also been given for raising a considerable number of men in His Majesty's Colonies in N. America, which it is hoped will amount to 3,000 and are to be commanded by Colonel Spotswood whom His Majesty has been pleased on this occasion to make a Major General."[99]

On July 1, 1740 "an additional number of Mortars, Arms and Ammunition and ordnance stores were ordered to be provided for the use of the Expedition, and for the Troops to be raised in America."[92]

"Two Blank Commissions were signed by the Lords Justices for 2 Lieut Cols: in the Regt to be raised in America," on October 2, 1740.[92]

Most of the Colonies sent Marines.[96] New Hampshire, Delaware, South Carolina and Georgia sent no troops. The latter two, with North Carolina, had sent an expedition

against St. Augustine while Delaware was included in the quota of Pennsylvania. The Massachusetts troops were commanded by Captains Daniel Goffe, John Prescott, Thomas Phillips, George Stewart and John Winslow. The Newport, R. I., company was commanded by Captain Joseph Sheffield and the Providence, R.I. Company by Captain William Hopkins. The two Connecticut companies were commanded by Captains Winslow and Prescott. Captain Farmer commanded one of the New Jersey companies.[100]

Virginia sent 400 Men and appropriated £ 5,000 for their support. The captain of one of her companies was Laurence Washington, the half-brother of George Washington.[101] Another was Captain William Hebb[102] the great grandfather of Colonel Clement Dorsey Hebb[103] who in 1890 served as Acting Commandant of the Marine Corps. Captain James Innes served as captain of one of the North Carolina companies.[104] Governor Dinwiddie, on November 16, 1754, wrote Sir Thomas Robinson that James Innes "had a commission in Sir William Gooch's regiment at Cartagena."[105]

Eight companies of infantry went from Philadelphia, under Captains appointed by the Governor, to join Admiral Vernon in the West Indies. Similar companies also went from Virginia and Carolina. All were to rendezvous at

Jamaica.[106] "War with Spain was proclaimed at the Court House" in Philadelphia on April 14, 1740. "The Governor and Corporation were present; salute of cannon upon Society Hill; liquor free to all; loud health-drinking to the Royal Family; and bonfires at night. The Governor at once issued proclamation authorizing a levy of troops for the expedition against Cuba, the following being the recruiting officers named for Philadelphia City and County, Captains Palmer, Thomas Lawrence, Samuel Love;at Perkiomen, Marcus Huling; Manatawny, Owen Evan; Limerick, Alexander Woodrop and James Hamilton. It was expected to find plenty of recruits among the continental foreigners in the province, but they did not respond. Many flattering inducements were thrown out, and when these failed the Governor countenanced the enlistment of foreigners, a practice very injurious and leading to serious trouble and vehement remonstrance. When the Governor called for supplies the Assembly retaliated upon him, and thus the endless irritation was kept up."[107]

As provided in the King's orders of January 5, 1740 William Gooch, Lieutenant-Governor of Virginia, on the death of Colonel Spotswood on the eve of sailing, succeeded him in command of the American forces.[108]

"Admiral Vernon (nicknamed Old Grog),[109] who was to

command the expedition, was already in the West Indies, but had no Marines, as he had sailed some months before the formation of a Marine Establishment had been decided upon.[110] He was, however, strongly in favor of having Marines in his ships, and it was probably in great part owing to his representations that their resuscitation was determined on.[111] Just before sailing for the West Indies, on 23d July, 1739, he had written to the Duke of Newcastle:"[112]

"I could wish indeed, we had each of us a company of regular troops sent on board of us, which would have strengthened us in numbers, as well as had their expertness in handling their arms, to have incited our seamen with the imitation of them. If we should come to a general war with France as well as Spain, I believe your grace will have already perceived from the difficulty in manning these ships as they are, the necessity there may be of converting most of our marching regiments into Marines."[113]

Admiral Vernon sailed from Portsmouth, England, July 20, and arrived at Jamaica on October 23, 1739. Here he embarked 200 soldiers under the command of Captain Newton to serve as Marines and sailed for Porto Bello in Panama.[114]

Porto Bello was captured in November, 1739.[115]

It was in this expedition that the word "grog" came into being. Admiral Vernon wore a rough boat cloak called a grogham and Vernon was nick-named "Old Grog." Shortly after the surrender of Porto Bello the Admiral introduced West Indian rum aboard ship. It was nicknamed grog.[116]

Admiral Vernon was joined by eight sail of transports, escorted by H. M. S. Wolf, in October, 1740, bringing land forces from North America.[117]

In a letter dated November 10, 1740, written at Port Royal, Jamaica, to His Excellency James Pattin at Barbadoes, Admiral Vernon stated that "Col. Gooch with ye forces rais'd in Virginia and Philadelphia is arrived here and we may reasonably expect every day those coming from New York with Col. Blakeney; and if Lord Cathcart (on Ogle's ships) be coming you must soonest hear of him to the windward."[118]

In the meantime a reinforcing expedition under Sir Chaloner Ogle, had sailed in October, 1740, from England to join Vernon.[119] Colomb wrote that Ogle sailed with a "considerable body of Marines and land-forces under Lord Cathcart."[120] Field tells us that Ogle's vessels carried six regiments of British Marines and two regiments of foot.[121] Ogle arrived at the Island of Dominica on

December 19, 1740, according to Colomb who wrote that Cathcart died there.[122] Ogle's Squadron included 21 sail of the line, besides frigates and fireships, with 12,000 sailors and six regiments of foot and Marines.[123] Field informs us that Lord Cathcart died of dysentery before the fleet reached Dominica, where it arrived January 3, 1741.[94] General Wentworth succeeded Lord Cathcart in command of the land forces.[124] Ogle came under Vernon's command when he arrived at Jamaica early in January, 1741.[125]

Colonel Field contributes this information: "On arrival at Hispaniola, further reinforcements were embarked in the shape of two of the newly raised regiments of American Marines and a few other Colonial levies," to which the following note was added:[126]

"The American regiments joined Vernon's Expedition in Jamaica on the 25th of February, 1741, probably from three to four thousand strong, but thanks to the climate more than to the bullets of the enemy, their casualties were such that on the 5th of October of the same year there were mustered 'Fit for Duty' only 210 Sergeants, 197 Corporals, 74 Drummers, and 1,610 rank and file."[127]

On January 5, 1741, while at Jamaica, Admiral Vernon wrote to General Wentworth:[128]

"I was exceedingly surprised upon reading Capt Trevor's

letter, that you had prevailed on him to give orders for the sick soldiers of the American Regiment being received into the Hospital for our seamen at Port Royal, an order, I conceive, neither he nor I can justify, bringing such a charge on the Navy, and which he may be liable to have charged to his wages."[129]

On January 17, 1741, Admiral Vernon wrote General Wentworth as follows: "The Experiment designed for going with Lieut. Lowther, is ready for sea at any time, wanting only a supply of men, for which I have already acquainted you that the assistance of a Detachment of 30 Soldiers of the American Regt: (or from any other you shall think proper) will be wanted, which I must now desire you will be pleased to give orders for accordingly."[130]

A Return dated February 14, 1741, of the "Officers and private men belonging to the Honorable Colonel Gooch's Regiment put on board the Fleet commanded by the Honorable Edward Vernon, Vice-Admiral and Commander-in-Chief in the West Indies," shows Gooch's Marines distributed as follows: The First Battalion in four ships: Defiance (2 officers, 48 men); Suffolk (5 officers, 165 men); Falmouth (no officers, 20 men); Orford (2 officers, 48 men). The Second Battalion in three ships: Chichester (4 officers, 135 men); Rippon (3 officers, 97 men);

Litchfield (no officers, 10 men). The Third Battalion consisted of 11 officers and 334 men but no ships were shown. The Fourth Battalion in five ships: Princess Caroline (3 officers, 87 men); Russell (4 officers, 116 men); Torbay (3 officers, 87 men); Princess Amelia (4 officers, 113 men); Montague (2 officers, 58 men). This gives a total of 43 officers and 1,338 men.[131]

However, regardless of the date of joining Vernon, these American Marines were with him when Cartagena was attacked.[132]

"During the last week in January, 1741," the Fleet sailed from Port Royal, Jamaica. It made "Cape Tiberon, on the western extremity of Hispaniola (now the island of Haiti and Santo Domingo) on the seventh of February. After several days of careful reconnoitering to make certain whether or not the French Fleet had sailed for Europe as reported" Vernon anchored "in the bays near the Cape."[133]

The fleet anchored two leagues to the westward of Port Louis, Isle of Vache, near Hispaniola. For seven days "detachments from the American Regiment" were sent daily "ashore to cut fascine and pickets."[134]

A Council of War, on February 16th, decided to make an attack on Cartagena.[135] "On the 25th of February the

fleet left for Cartagena" and on the fourth of March anchored "in Plaza Grande Bay between Cartagena and Point de Canoa."[136]

Cartagena "was not unused to hostile demonstrations ending in capture. Sir Francis Drake had sacked it in 1585, while it was captured in 1697 by the French under de Pointis." In 1741 it was considered "the principal, the most populous, and the best fortified city in Spanish-America."[137]

"The garrison of Cartagena consisted of 4,000 men; but to oppose this, the expedition contained land forces to the number of 12,000, and twenty-nine sail of the line, with a large proportion of frigates, containing in the whole 15,938 seamen," recorded Joseph Allen in his Battles of the British Navy.[138]

The entrance to Cartagena is six miles to the westward of the city, between two narrow peninsulas called Tierra Bomba and Barradera. This entrance is called Boca Chica, and is so narrow that only one ship can enter at the same time.[139]

"On the side of Tierra Bomba was the square fort St. Louis, having four bastions, mounted with eighty-two guns and three mortars; to which was added Fort St. Philip, mounting seven guns, and St. Jago mounting fifteen

guns; and a smaller battery of four guns, called Battery de Chamba, serving as outworks to it."[140]

On Barradera side, the fortifications were equally strong, consisting of a fascine battery, called the Barradera; and in a small bay at the back of that, another battery of four guns. Facing the entrance of the harbor also, on a small flat island, stood Fort St. Joseph, mounting twenty-one guns. The Boca was in addition, protected by a strong boom, flanked by the broadsides of four large ships of the line.[141]

The attack opened on March 9, 1741, with a heavy artillery preparation placed on the smaller defenses near the Boca Chica forts, St. Jago, St. Philip and the Chamba Battery. Troops (Smollett says Marines) were put ashore on Tierra Bomba. Fort St. Louis (Boca Chica Castle) held out. "About midnight on the 19th, 300 seamen and 200 soldiers or Marines (the latter under Captains Murra and Washington) were landed at a point on the Barradera (south) side" and spiked the Spanish guns of the fascine battery. Boca Chica Castle (Fort St. Louis) was stormed and carried on the 25th of March.[142] The boom was destroyed and the Spanish war-vessels captured or destroyed. The Spanish flagship Galicia was taken "with her Captain, the Captain of Marines, an Ensign and sixty men." The

enemy deserted the other Spanish defenses including Manzanilla Battery and the fortress of Grande Castillo. Only the outlying fort of St. Lazar was left to attack and take.[143]

After the capture of Boca Chica Castle (St. Louis) on the 25th, the Marines were soon reembarked. The Americans who had been landed on Tierra Bomba were reembarked on April 3d.[89]

The Army was landed on March 17, 1741, without opposition. The Military Commander requested Admiral Vernon to send a force ashore to destroy the fascine battery of the Spaniards, on the opposite side of the harbor, called the Barradera. Three hundred sailors supported by a body of soldiers that still remained on board the fleet, were conveyed thither at night in boats under the command of Captains Boscawen, Watson, Coats, Washington,[144] Mr. Murray, and Lieutenant Forrest, who attacked the battery with great valor, repulsed the enemy and spiked the guns.[145]

On April 5, 1741, Blakeney's and Grant's forces, of the Army, landed. These were "joined by two hundred Americans as pioneers," and the Army moved forward. A body of about 700 covered the road leading to the city and the Grenadiers were ordered to dislodge them. "A party of American soldiers" was detached to occupy a

"thick copse" to protect the main column attacking these 700 Spaniards, as the Grenadiers passed through a narrow pass. The next day "a number of Americans," were landed and cleared an encampment.[134]

The troops now advanced to attack San Lazardo. The operation was a complete failure.[134]

As soon as day-light enabled the general to view the posture of the troops, he sent to inform Brigadier Guise that, if he could push forward, he should be sustained by five hundred men, who were ordered to advance accordingly; but by this time the soldiers were disheartened, and the number of the enemy was every instant increased by reinforcements of fresh men from the city, until they equaled, if not exceeded, the assailants, for whom they waited on the hill without flinching.[146]

Some acrimonious messages having passed between the chiefs on this subject, the land officers demanded a general council of war, which was accordingly held on board the Admiral's own ship, on the 14th day of April, when, after the conditions of the army and the posture of affairs were taken into consideration, it was agreed, that as the troops were greatly diminished, weakened, and fatigued, and as their supplies of water were almost exhausted, the siege of such a strong place as Cartagena

could not be attempted with any probability of success; and therefore the artillery and forces should be re-embarked with all convenient expedition.[134]

The Land and Water parts of this expedition did not seem to understand each others language.[147] The principles of war are said to be eternal, sacred, everlasting, unchangeable. All were violated at Cartagena that it was possible to violate. Ill-feeling and dissension between the naval and military leaders destroyed all possibility of success.[148]

Vernon allowed Wentworth only 1,500 men with which to capture St. Lazar. Wentworth felt this number to be inadequate.[149]

A Council of War held on board the Princess Carolina in Cartagena Harbor on March 30, 1741 passed a resolution reading in part as follows:

"And as General Wentworth represented they should want a greater number of men to be landed with them, in order effectually to invest the town; it was resolved, he should be supplied from the men-of-War with all such of the American Forces as he should judge proper to be entrusted on shore, and likewise of the Detachments that were yet remaining on board of Lord James Cavendish's and Col. Bland's whenever the rest of the forces were landed, and General Wentworth should represent to be

necessary."[150]

General Wentworth embodied this demand in a letter written on board the Dorsetshire transport on April 2, 1741, in which he asked to be provided with: "All such of the Marines, which remain of the 600 put on board His Matys Ships at Spithead, the remainder of Lord James Cavendish's and Col. Bland's Regts & a detachment of 1500 men under proper Officers from the American Regt commanded by Col. Gooch."[151]

The troops began landing early on the morning of April 5th "at a place about two miles from St. Lazar." "Two hundred Americans as pioneers," were present according to Smollett. Other Americans formed part of the combat force. The Convent of La Popa, situated on high ground overlooking St. Lazar, was occupied. Wentworth bivouacked his men at La Quinta on low ground between La Popa and the sea.[152]

Admiral Vernon and General Wentworth now indulged in a warfare of words, a heated controversy over the methods and strength to capture St. Lazar.[153]

"At the Head Quarters of La Quinta," on April 7th a Council of War presided over by General Wentworth took this action:[154]

"The Council of War having taken into consideration

the Report of Mr. Armstrong, Chief Engineer and likewise intelligence received from prisoners, it appears to the said Council of War that the walls of the Castle of St Lazar, cannot be less than 25 feet in height, which is equal to the length of their longest Ladders, that there is, besides a Ditch with water and very muddy at the bottom, supposed to be about 15 feet in depth. We therefore, for these reasons deem it impracticable to scale the walls, and do resolve with all possible dispatch to raise a Battery in order to make a breach."[154]

"The Council of War are further of opinion that if the Castle were at the same time Bombarded from the Fleet and a large ship brought to batter it, it might facilitate the success."[154]

"Which Resolution the Council of War desire their president to communicate to Admiral Vernon by the first opportunity." This Resolution was signed by eight officers, six of whom were veteran Marine officers.[154]

"The assaulting detachment consisting of 500 Grenadiers under Colonel Grant and 1,000 Marines, commanded by Colonel Wynward formed up on the beach about 4 o'clock on the morning of April 9th. With them were some Colonial troops from Jamaica, and a detachment of Americans carrying scalling ladders, wool-packs, and the hand grenades

belonging to the Grenadiers who had been relieved of their pouches on account of the hot climate." Wolfe's Marines, 500 strong, formed the reserve. "Brigadier Guise was in command of the whole."[155] The Americans were to follow the attacking columns at some distance in the rear.[156]

The attack was a ghastly failure.[157] Among other things the guides proved false. Colonel Grant as he died gasped: "The General ought to hang the guides and the King ought to hang the General."[158]

"The walls were inaccessible, for the Americans had fled, throwing down their scaling ladders and the woolpacks with which the ditch was to have been filled up. Three of them only stuck to their duty, and with a ladder which these brave fellows had dragged up, a few Grenadiers, headed by a Sergeant, actually succeeded in reaching the ramparts of St. Lazar itself."[159]

The actions of the Americans are better described in the Historical Chronicle[160] in these words: "The Americans, finding they were knocked down without any arms to defend themselves, threw down their ladders, etc., and retired to their camp. Three only were brought up to the trenches, upon which about ten of our Grenadiers and a Sergeant mounted the walls of the fort," etc.

And Tobias Smollett credits the American Marines with

bravery as follows:

"Nor could the scaling ladders, wool-packs, or hand-granades, be of any service in this emergency; for the Americans, who carried them in the rear, seeing the troops falling by whole platoons, refused to advance with their burdens; but though they would not advance as pioneers, many of them took up the firelocks which they found on the field, and, mixing among the troops, behaved very bravely."[134]

According to Hart, in Admirals of the Caribbean, the Americans were "credited by the land-officers to have rendered gallant services."[161]

"The tropical rains due at this season now set in, sickness increased, and after the captured harbor works had been dismantled and blown up, and their guns destroyed, the expedition re-embarked and withdrew to Jamaica leaving the harbor full of rotting corpses. Seldom has a worse fiasco dulled the lustre of British arms."[89]

"As far as the Marines are concerned, here ends - and very honorably - the story of the attempt on Cartagena," wrote Colonel Field. Admiral Vernon acted childishly "at a final council of war after the repulse at St. Lazar." "So the wrangling continued to the end, Vernon throughout having striven rather to dictate to and interfere with

the Military commanders than to support them by a judicious use of his ships. Wentworth, doubtless, was not free from blame, but he was terribly and hopelessly handicapped by Vernon."[89]

Hervey wrote that "the General complained that the Fleet lay idle, while his troops were harassed and diminished by hard duty and distemper. The Admiral affirmed that his ships could not lie near enough to batter the town of Cartagena, and upbraided the General with want of activity and resolution to attack the fort of St. Lazar, which commanded the town, and might be taken by scalade."[162]

"Between the Admiral, who seemed suddenly to be morally paralyzed, and the General, who had all the time seemed to think that if he kept his mouth open long enough the cherries would certainly drop into it," said Colomb, "there arose mutual recriminations."[163]

"The Admiral and the General quarreled, as was not uncommon in days when neither had an intelligent comprehension of the others business."[164]

In a letter to the writer of this chapter, dated January 9, 1926, in which he enclosed Wentworth's resolution of April 7th, Colonel Field wrote: "The following 'Resolution' of the Council of War assembled by General Wentworth, and which was forwarded to Admiral Vernon proves

beyond controversey that the failure to capture the Castle of St. Lazar and the loss of life entailed was entirely the fault of this Naval Commander. He was right in urging the necessity of losing no time in the poisonous atmosphere in which the operations were being carried on, but to have persisted in demanding that St. Lazar should be attacked by enfeebled troops without any artillery preparation in the face of the 'Resolution', signed, as it was by the Officers of long experience in warfare, was absolutely criminal and his demand was further agravated by his making no attempt to assist the assault by the guns of any of his ships."[165]

Captain Marryatt in one of his stories said that "the Army thought the Navy might have beaten down the stone ramparts ten feet thick and the Navy wondered why the Army did not walk up the same ramparts which were thirty feet perpendicular."[166] Bancroft informs us that the "enterprize, instead of having one good leader had two bad ones."[167] Mahan is quoted as saying that the Admiral and the General quarrelled, as was not uncommon in days when neither had an intelligent comprehension of the other's business.[168]

Lodge summed it up by declaring it a "fruitless expedition" but that it was "one more step in the development of the Union."[169]

Tobias Smollett gave his criticism in Roderick Random: "It is a melancholy truth which, however, ought to be told that a low, ridiculous, and pernicious jealousy subsisted between the land and sea officers during this whole expedition; and that the chiefs of those were so weak or wicked as to take all opportunities of thwarting and manifesting their contempt for each other, at a time when the lives of so many brave fellow-subjects were at stake, and when the interest and honor of their country required the utmost zeal and unanimity. Instead of conferring personally, and cooperating with vigor and cordiality, they began to hold separate councils, drew up acrimonious remonstrances, and send irritating messages to each other; and while each of them piqued himself upon doing barely as much as would screen him from the censure of a court-martial, neither seemed displeased at the neglect of his colleague; but, on the contrary, both were in appearance glad of the miscarriage of the expedition, in hope of seeing one another stigmatized with infamy and disgrace."[170]

On other matters Smollett wrote:

"Our provision consisted of putrid salt beef, to which the sailors gave the name of Irish Horse; salt pork of New England, which though neither fish nor flesh, savored of both;" also "brandy or rum" diluted with water

to render it palatable (instead of small beer) "for which reason, this composition was, by the sailors not unaptly styled Necessity."[170] Vernon's sobriquet was Old Grog given him on account of his wearing a cloak of grogham. So the men gave this mixture of Jamaica rum and water the nickname of grog.[171]

Allen expressed a succinct criticism in these words: "Sickness among the troops, the ill-temper among the land and sea commanders, lost the reward for which they had so long toiled."[172]

Thus ended, in damage and disgrace, the ever-memorable expedition to Cartagena, undertaken with an armament, which, if properly conducted, might have ruined not only the Spanish settlements in America, but even reduced the whole West Indies under the dominion of Great Britain.[134]

The true cause of the disastrous ending of this Expedition was the lack of co-operation which existed between the Army and Navy.[173]

The Cartagena Expedition caused the death of many Americans. Not one-tenth of the Americans in the Expedition returned home.[174]

In a letter, Colonel Field wrote: After Cartagena there were the following promotions "to the Americans" that is "Gooch's." From "Wentworth's" (24th Foot),

Captain-Lieutenant Boswell to Captain in the "Americans". Lieut. Browne (Capt.) to Major in the "Americans." Lieut. Speed (Capt.) to Major in the "Americans." N.B. I assume that (Capt) was some sort of brevet rank. From Harrison's (15th Foot), Captain Campbell to Lieut. Col. in the "Americans." This officer does not appear to have been promoted directly to"Gooch's." He seems to have been appointed to "Robinson's" (2d Marines or 45th Foot) for a month or so (April-May, 1741) as a Major or Lieut. Col. before going to the "Americans." He died in Jamaica October 8, 1741 and was "succeeded by Lieut. Col. Leighton of 'Gooch's.' " There was a Francis Leighton who received his first commission November 28, 1705 and was appointed Lieut. Col. in"Robinson's"2d Marines on April 24, 1741. He does not seem to have been promoted in the Marines and so very probably went to"Gooch's"later. On the other hand it may mean that when Campbell left "Robinson's"he was succeeded in that regiment by Leighton from"Gooch's." Captain William Meyrick from"Wynyard's"(4th Marines, 47th Foot) to Major in the "Americans." Second Lieutenant Dalrymple from"Douglas's" (5th Marines, 48th Foot) to Captain in the "Americans." At the same time Major Whitfield of the "Americans" was promoted to Lieut. Col. in"Cockran's"(late Douglas's) Marines. Considerable information about "Gooch's Marines"

is probably located in a "series of Commission Lists in the Record Office, Chancery Lane, London, Eng."[175]

In Home Office and Admiralty Correspondence, Volume 89 (1741) is a List signed by Colonel Cotterell, of the NCOs and Men of the North American Regiment.[176]

A Return (H.O. Corr with Admiralty, Vol. 88) dated June 14, 1741 of Commissioned Officers, Non-Commissioned Officers and Men of Col. Gooch's Regiment of Northern Troops gives the following names: Captains Gillespie, Fitzhugh, Farmer, Prevost, Boswell, Stephen, Martin, Messar, Bushbrow, Washington, Thin, Gordon, Philip, Clark, Bishop, and Lieut. Richard Eager.[177]

On June 30, 1741 General Wentworth wrote to Admiral Vernon: "The Captains of the Superb, Kent &c have refused to admit officers to come on board them, in proportion to their number of private men, which being absolutely necessary especially when the Americans come to land, you will give orders for removing that difficulty."[178]

"Attempts were afterwards made upon St. Jago de Cuba, Porto Cavallo and La Guaira, but none of them met with any success. The whole design upon the Spanish possessions in America had come to a bad end due to the incapacity of those in command."[89]

After the Cartagena catastrophe Vernon made an attempt

to take Cuba from the Spaniards.[179]

On May 26, 1741, Vernon, Wentworth, and Governor Trelawney of Jamaica, decided to attempt to capture Santiago in pursuance of the Government's policy of offensive warfare against the Spanish colonies.[180] Hildreth wrote that five hundred additional Americans were sent from Massachusetts for this mission, but that the effort failed since there was a resentful spirit among the Americans over these operations; for it was felt that "the Colonial troops had been condemned to the hardest drudgery of the service."[181]

Admiral Vernon sailed into Guantanamo Bay, Cuba, on July 13, 1741. In that early period this bay bore the name of Walthenam Bay. Vernon re-named it Cumberland Bay.[182] It was forty miles to the westward of St. Jago de Cuba (Santiago) and was not occupied by Spaniards or defended. Vernon had with him "61 sail in all." The transports carried "3000 men remaining of the Army and 1,000 Negro troops which had been raised in Jamaica."[183]

"On July 20, 1741, a Council of War decided to begin the reduction of the Island of Cuba" by marching overland to attack St. Jago. Once again cooperation failed. General Wentworth on August 5, 1741, wrote to Admiral Vernon "from the Camp in Cuba," in part, as follows:

"As you, Sir, were pleased to assure me that all the

Americans should be landed when this expedition was taken into consideration ----- I fully expected them to have joined us, our numbers at the present being very low and within these few days a good deal lessened by sickness. If none can be spared from the service of the Fleet, I must acquiesce, but must own I did not expect to be disappointed in a matter of so much consequence, as being deprived of a large proportion of the forces I depended upon when we were so far advanced into the enemy's country."[184]

Wentworth's army advanced as far as Santa Catalina de Guantanamo (Guantanamo City) and went into camp. There it remained. On August 3, 1741 the ranking officers signed the famous Round Robin that due to malaria and yellow fever the army must be moved at once or perish.[185]

Vernon openly criticized Wentworth's conduct. For over a month a most energetic correspondence ensued between the admiral and the general while operations ashore were limited to foraging and scouting parties from the camp on the river bank near the present Guantanamo City. Hervey records the farthest advance as being that of a reconnoitering party under a Major Dunster which reached the village of Elleguava supposed to have been situated about sixteen miles from Santiago. This unit consisted of about 150 Americans and Negroes. Meanwhile the main body of the

troops was succumbing rapidly to disease.[186]

Operations by land against St. Jago proving unsatisfactory, Vernon proceeded by sea against that port. That also turned hopeless.[187] Then on September 26, 1741, came another blast from General Wentworth. It seems that the Governor of Jamaica had requested "100 private men, with officers in proportion, to be draughted from Col. Gooch's Regt." So the five ranking land officers held a Council of War "in the Camp in the Island of Cuba" and passed this resolution:

"That the Troops here incamped, being reduced so low in their numbers, as not to afford three reliefs for the ordinary and extra ordinary guards, the 100 men required cannot be spared until they shall be replaced by the like number from the Independent Companies at Jamaica and actually landed here at our Camp before the 100 American Soldiers shall be embarked."[188]

While the forces on shore remained inactive, the fleet, in spite of the threat of the Spanish squadron at Havana, operated extensively against the enemy privateers and cleared them from the Windward Passage. A number of valuable prizes were taken, including three regular Spanish men-of-war. While a nucleus of heavy ships remained at Guantanamo at all times, from which strong units could be detailed for convoy duty,

cruising vessels were distributed on various stations. One unit was maintained on blockading station off Santiago, one to windward of Cape Francois on the north coast of Haiti to protect British trade coming from North America, and one off Cape Bacca to protect trade passing along the south shore of Haiti. Meanwhile other cruisers operated offensively against enemy trade to windward of La Hacha on the route from Spain to Cartagena and Porto Bello, on the north coast of Cuba on the route through the old Bahama channel, and off Cape Corrientes on the important enemy route from Cartagena and Porto Bello to Vera Cruz and Havana.[189]

Finally the operations were given up; and the troops reembarked in November 1741, and sailed out of Guantanamo Bay.[190] Attempts were later made upon Porto Cavallo and La Guaira, but neither met with success. "The whole design upon the Spanish possessions in America had come to a bad end due to the incapacity of those in command."[191]

"Thus ended the operations in the West Indies during the year 1741, in which the lives of many brave men were sacrificed through the misconduct of their commanders."[192]

The operations under Vernon caused the death of many Americans. Not one-tenth of Americans in the expedition

returned home. "More than a thousand died in a day for several days. Of nearly one thousand men from New England, not one hundred returned." Of five hundred men from Massachusetts, fifty only returned.[193] Gordon, in his American Revolution, stated that "scarce one-fiftieth" of the Massachusetts troops returned. Shattuck tells us that the Massachusetts troops were paid off and dismissed on October 24, 1742 and only fifty returned. Bancroft wrote that "of the recruits from the Colonies, nine out of ten fell victims to the climate and to the service."[194]

A force of 200 American Marines and 50 British Marines, under Major Caulfield in 1742, landed on the Island of Rattan, in the Bay of Honduras, and occupied it. A Marine Detachment of H. M. S. Litchfield was also attached to this landing party.[195]

In addition to supplying many transports for those West Indian operations of 1739-1744,[196] there were also many Americans serving in the British Navy.[197] American privateers, and British privateers manned partly by Americans, abounded.

American Marines formed a part of the crews of these vessels, as well as "landsmen". In November, 1739, King George II of England issued instructions for the Commanders of Letters of Marque and Private Men-of-War operating

against the King of Spain, which provided "that one-third part of the whole company of every ship or vessel so fitted out as aforesaid shall be Land Men."[198]

The Assembly of Rhode Island, on August 21, 1739, "authorized the Governor to grant commissions to private men-of-war to act against Spain and the subjects thereof, pursuant to His Majesty's warrant."[199] Other provinces did likewise.[200] The Colonial Governors issued commissions to the privateersmen.[201]

St. Augustine was considered by the Georgians to be open to attack in 1740. Accordingly, following Oglethorpe's suggestion, an expedition was formed composed of Georgians, South Carolinians, American Indians and some vessels of the Royal Navy, to attack St. Augustine by sea and land. The combined forces arrived at St. Augustine and began a siege, but they failed to work effectively together and the result was a humiliating failure.[202]

A Spanish Expedition consisting of about 5,000 men, and a considerable fleet, invaded Georgia in 1742 but was defeated.[202] Oglethorpe led a retaliatory expedition against St. Augustine in the following year. These operations resulted in the English holding their ground and showing that they could not be dislodged.[203]

Within a short time after 1743 the war vessels

America, Boston, and Essex, were built in New England for the Royal Navy.[204]

A collision between the English and French colonists was inevitable. The English colonies had grown much more rapidly than the French. They were more prosperous. There was a spirit of enterprize among them that could not be crushed. They could not tamely see themselves hemmed in upon the Atlantic coast and cut off from access to the interior of the continent by a colony one-tenth size.

The French getting advices from Europe earlier, attacked Canseau before the English were aware of the hostile decision. News reached Boston June 2, 1744. "There was danger on the coasts. The armed sloops of Rhode Island and Connecticut were cruising between Martha's Vineyard and New Jersey, and the brigantines of Massachusetts watched the coast north of Cape Cod."[204]

New England was aroused, - lucrative fisheries and her hopes of wresting the monopoly of the Mediterranean fish trade from France were ruined by this war. The maritime frontiers of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and New York were imperilled; and the Louisburg privateers threatened to annihilate Anglo-American commerce.[205]

New England determined to attack her northern rival

Louisburg - the "Dunkirk of America." Massachusetts issued a call to arms and in 1745 Colonial standards were raised against Louisburg. Massachusetts and Maine supplied eight regiments; Connecticut and New Hampshire, one each. About 300 men arrived from Rhode Island; but after the surrender of Louisburg. New York and New Yorkers subsidized the expedition to the extent of about $50,000.00 and 10 cannon; and Pennsylvania contributed supplies.[206]

"A small fleet was hastily assembled and the aid of the Imperial Navy invoked." Commodore Peter Warren of the Royal Navy at first refused to assist but eventually arrived and helped.[207] This Colonial naval force was commanded by Captain Edward Tyng, a privateersman with some experience under fire. It consisted of 13 armed ships of 216 guns, and 90 transports.[208] The flotilla was composed of the Massachusetts, Caesar, Shirley, Boston Packet, Tartar, several sloops, and 90 transports.[209] The "Colony sloop" Tartar, built, manned, and equipped by the colony of Rhode Island was given the status of a privateer by the British Admiralty.[210]

The expeditionary force of 4,000 "over-sea soldiers" and twelve or more American war-vessels was commanded by William Pepperrell, of Kittery. The chief of artillery was Richard Gridley who in June, 1775, marked out the redoubt on Bunker Hill.[211]

"After a day of fast and prayer, the Colonial Armada" sailed from Nantasket Roads,[207] in March, 1745. "Pray for us while we fight for you" was the last message of the departing provincial soldiers to their friends on shore.[212]

Early in April, 1745, the Army encamped on the blood-stained soil of Canso, Cape Breton Island. Strengthened by four Imperial ships under Peter Warren, on April 23rd, from the West Indian and Newfoundland stations, the Colonial Armada sailed from there on April 29, and dropped anchor before Louisburg.[207]

This "New England Navy"[211] - "the modest prototype of the powerful Navy of the United States" - haughtily blockaded the port; and Warren's squadron of ten British ships despatched to its support by the Imperial Ministry also displayed to Louisburg the dreaded power of England.[213]

The landing was made April 30, and May 1, 1745,[208] and Louisburg surrendered on June 17, 1745, as attested by a monument erected June 17, 1895, standing "a few hundred yards from the shores of the harbor, near the spot where General Pepperrell received the keys of the fortress from Governor Duchambon."[214]

The capture of Louisburg "filled Europe with astonishment and America with joy." It was the capital achievement of the war. The prowess of the Americans could no longer be doubted.[215]

That these operations conducted by an American were "done with true military judgment is abundantly proved by the fact that, when Louisburg was assaulted and taken in 1758, by the combined land and naval forces of Amherst and Boscawen, Pepperrell's plan of attack was followed."[215]

The Siege of Louisburg taught the Americans to fight and to know that they could fight - things afterwards that became very important. Twice the New Englanders had captured forts from the French only to see them returned by the treaties. They did not like this. They became tired of fighting for Great Britain without appreciation.[216]

It was in this War against France that American privateers first began seriously to assert themselves as a distinctive sea force. Besides the highly important part they played in the expedition against Louisburg,[217] a large number of privateers put to sea on their own responsibility and made independent cruises against the enemy.[216]

"A majority of the colonial privateers carried heavy armaments and large complements, the average probably being not far from 18 guns and 130 men, making them really more formidable than the average cruiser of that day."[216]

These early privateers carried Marine Detachments, of course.[218] Few Americans of today realize that their forbears of the colonial period fought naval battles that would have been as familiar as Paul Revere's Ride if they

had occurred in the Revolution.

In August of 1744 there was the "private Man of War" Hawke, carrying 138 Seamen and "Marines" lying in the Harbor of Cape Ann.[219] It is written that Esek Hopkins "was a sea captain and merchant adventurer," in 1745.[219] "His ability as a sailor must have been outstanding, for within three years he was advanced to the command of a vessel. He was commissioned Captain of the privateer sloop Wentworth, 90 tons, on January 27, 1741."[220] "Newspapers, correspondence, and commerical records of the next thirty years contain many references to his career. In peacetime he sailed vessels for the Browns of Providence, in time of war he commanded privateers. In the Seven Years War he achieved recognition in the latter capacity, Moses Brown remembering him as the first successful privateer commander of this colony during that war."[221] "As he approached middle age, he would occasionally stay at home for a few years with his family on his farm in North Providence, but the life at sea always called him back."[222] He commanded a privateer in 1757-1758.[223]

In 1745 "two large ships were built, and fitted out from Newport, as privateers, and were intended to cruise in company on the Spanish Main. They were principally owned by Colonel Dodfrey Malborn. They mounted 22 guns

each, and were commanded by" Captains Brewer and Cranston. They sailed from Newport, on December 24, and "were never heard from after sailing" "nearly two hundred women became widows by this disaster."[224]

When the crews of the Castar and Pollux found that a person who had entered on board them two or three days before was a woman they seized upon the unhappy wretch and ducked her three times from the yard-arm, and afterwards made their negroes tar her all over from head to foot, by which cruel treatment and the rope that let her into the water having been indiscreetly fastened, the poor woman was very much hurt and continued ill a long time. This was about 1745.[225]

Calls for "Gentlemen Sailors" were made in the "Post Boy" of New York in 1745.[226]

The French armed vessel, Rising Sun was cut out from a convoy and taken by the clever stratagem in 1746 of the American privateer Prince Charles. The American vessel made believe to be a regular man-of-war. To assist in the deception the Prince Charles armed a number of "men like Marines," placed "grenadier caps on their heads, and arranged to have those imposing head-pieces appear just above his bulwarks, where the enemy could see them." The trick worked admirably,[216] and the Rising Sun was captured.

Off Isle St. Mary's, on June 26, 1748 the Bethel, a Massachusetts built ship, sighted after nightfall the large Spanish Ship Jesus Maria Y Joseph, 26 guns, 110 men. Captain Isaac Freeman of the Bethel hung out Lanterns, made his decks appear crowded by putting caps on sticks, showed wooden guns, and closed the Spaniard with what he described as a "Serenade of French Horns and Trumpets," threatening a broadside unless the great ship surrendered at once. The Spaniard thought the Bethel must be an English man-of-war, and gave up the ship without resistance.[227]

"As early as 1748 a 40-gun ship called the America was built in Boston for the King's service; this vessel never made a cruise, but was laid up in the dock-yard at Portsmouth."[228]

This war ended with the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, and Louisburg was returned to France.[229] This treaty was a mere truce.

Peace could not permanently exist in America, however, as long as the French held Canada and thus menaced the existence of the American colonies.

Seven of the American Colonies urged by common interests gathered in conference at Albany, N.Y., in 1754.[230] The representatives of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland

assembled for the common good.[229]

The year 1755 was the beginning of stirring times on two continents. It was the year when an earthquake engulfed Lisbon; it was the year when the Indians of Virginia annihilated Braddock; it was the year when the French Acadians were driven from their homes and distributed among the colonies; and it was the year which saw the beginning of what is known on this continent as the "French and Indian War," and in Europe as the "Seven Years' War." France and England were about to fight their last duel for supremacy in America.[231]

While there were considerable combats between the Colonists and the Indians in the vicinity of Quantico, it was not until the end of March 1755 that a real naval force visited the Potomac. In that month Commodore Kappel's Fleet composed of the flagship Norwich, Sea Horse, Nightingale, Garland, and some smaller ships, that brought Braddock's Army to America, sailed past Quantico and anchored off Alexandria. There was nothing at Quantico in those days for visiting military and naval men to inspect as there is now - nothing but a small creek leading from the broad river up to Dumfries, which town was not visible from the Potomac.[232]

Yankee Doodle, written originally in derision of

Americans, appeared during this war. Responding to appeals from the British many Americans rendezvoused near Albany, New York, in 1755, to assist in fighting the French and Indians. Their appearance, striking several Englishmen as ludicrous, one of them set words to an old tune which can be traced back to Charles I. With much gravity he recommended it to the Americans as one of the most celebrated airs of martial music. In a few days nothing was heard in the American Camp but the air of Yankee Doodle. In twenty-odd years it was the American National March.[233]

The Americans furnished men, money, and ships without limit to win this war.[234] An interesting military organization was The Royal Americans.[235]

While a considerable part of the fighting was on shore this war gave American Sea Soldiers many opportunities to combat the French on both salt and fresh water.

Tun Tavern is an historic name in Marine Corps annals. Pennsylvania organized to fight the Indians. Benjamin Franklin was colonel of the Philadelphia regiment. One day when Franklin's Regiment "had drawn up at the Coffee House to drink success to the King's forces, Governor Morris forbade the usual artillery demonstration. It was almost the last act of his official life. So at least the officers regarded it, for they retired to the Tun Tavern and drank bumpers to

the toast, 'A speedy arrival of a new Governor.' "[236]

In 1758 the Expedition under Wolfe was sent against Louisburg. All his operations were based upon the fleet, which not only carried his army to the spot, but moved up and down the river as the various feints required. The landing which led to the decisive action was made directly from the ships.[237] The fortress finally surrendered on July 27, 1758, the French fleet was totally destroyed and "The French power on the North Atlantic coast vanished like a wraith."[238] It gave the English a new base both for the Army and the Fleet.

The victory was acclaimed in England. In America the feeling of satisfaction was equally strong. It is not possible to set out of view the fact that at this date there was a strong desire in the American provinces to be independent of all home control; even when their very existence depended on the power which Great Britain would put forth to maintain them. The capture of Louisburg was the first act in the final drama, in which the British colonists were to become the undisputed masters of North America.[239]

In January, 1759 a British Squadron carrying a military expedition including 800 British Marines, attacked Martinique. Most of the Marines were from the detachments

on board the various ships of war. In other words we have here an "expeditionary force of Marines" formed by increasing the strength of the ships' detachments. The expedition was very successful, at Martinique and also in Guadeloupe.[240]

A naval battle was fought on Lake Champlain in 1759 between an English-American Fleet and the French. The English-American Force consisted of 6,537 (including 974 Royal Americans) British, and 4,839 Americans, a total of 11,376, in addition to their small fleet. General Amherst, in July, 1759, passed to Lake George without opposition. On July 21, 1759, Amherst embarked his Army in batteaux at Fort Edward on Lake George and started northward. He arrived at Ticonderoga unopposed. The French abandoned Ticonderoga and Crown Point and retired to the Isle Aux Noix.[241]

Arriving at Crown Point on Lake Champlain, Amherst began restoring the fort there. He hesitated to ascend the Lake in his "64 batteaux and whaleboats" from "the want of rigged vessels." The French had four vessels "constantly cruising about, one of which La Vigilette," "manned by sailors had ten guns."[242]

Amherst decided to build a squadron to cope with the French naval force and enable him to enter Canada. The saw-mill at Fort Ticonderoga supplied the lumber. Before

the vessels were completed he built a raft 84' x 20' to carry six 20-pounders to attack the Isle Aux Noix intrenchments.[242]

Two vessels were finished by October 10, 1759. They were the brigantine Duke of Cumberland carrying "sixty seamen and fifty Marines," and the Boscawen, manned with "sixty seamen and fifty Marines." These two vessels started on October 10, 1759, with the troops following in batteaux. On October 11, the "French schooners came in sight," and the Duke of Cumberland and Boscawen gave chase. They drove the French ships into a bay but darkness fell before they could capture them. Entering the bay on the following morning two of them were found sunk and one run aground by the French. The expedition returned to Crown Point on October 21, 1759. Amherst was master of Lake Champlain. The Duke of Cumberland and Boscawen raised the sunken French sloops, carried them to Crown Point where they became welcome additions to the English-American fleet. The American troops returned home in November, 1759.[242]

In 1759, in addition to the operations on Lake Champlain, the Americans served with Wolfe at Quebec, on board the King's and American vessels and relieved some of Wolfe's regulars at Louisburg so they could proceed to Quebec. The orders and regulations of Major General Wolfe for expeditions

against Quebec proved that "troops are to be as careful as possible in working their ships, obedient to the Admiral's commands and attentive to all signals."[243]

On August 10, 1760, Amherst got his Army afloat at Oswego. It consisted of about 11,000 men, of whom 4,500 were Americans. "The flotilla of nearly 800 whale-boats and batteaux was escorted by several gun-boats." A French brig was here captured by the gun-boats. Fort Levis was captured. Sixty boats were wrecked or damaged and 84 men drowned in descending the rapids. The fleet glided triumphantly to the shores of Lachine, nine miles above Montreal on September 6, 1760. On the 8th, Montreal surrendered and New France passed into the control of Great Britain."[244]

The many colonial warships and privateers provided during this war by the colonies were the lineal forbears of those fine ships of the State Navies that fought the British sea power in the Revolution. Very powerful assistance was given by American sea power. Grimshaw wrote that in addition to 24,000 American soldiers serving ashore, "four hundred privateers cruised with successful vigilance, not only in the West Indian waters, but on the coast of France."[245]

Alexander McDougal, another American prominent in the

Revolution, was captain of the privateer sloop Tyger.[246] The privateer Game Cock commanded by Abraham Whipple[247] captured twenty-six vessels in a single cruise. Captain John Dennis commanded "the privateer ship Tay of 18 guns and 180 men which was fitted out by the merchants of Newport." This "vessell sailed from Newport on the 22d of August, 1756, and was never heard from after sailing."[248]

Lieutenant William Starr, an American, left an interesting account of his services in the Expedition against the Spanish in Cuba about 1762. His diary refers to "Shooting at Mark," that is, target practice, at Cape Samana on Hispaniola; Cape Nicolas; Bite of Leogane; and of helping to capture "St. Deaga" (Santiago) Cuba.[249]

"An agreement drawn up between the captain and crew of the New York private armed brigantine Mars in 1762 reveals something of the sea customs of the time and life aboard a vessel of that sort."[250]

During the peace negotiations in 1762, the question was raised among the representatives of England whether it were worth while to hold New France, some contending that it would be more profitable to retain instead the sugar-producing Island of Guadaloupe.[251]

The Peace of Paris, in 1763, terminated a war which exalted Great Britain to the zenith of military glory.

By this treaty she remained sole mistress of North America, and the American colonies were relieved from the fear of their annihilation by their French Neighbors. Such was the state of the American Colonies at the conclusion of a war, in which they had been "more than conquerors" that from the moment the French menace was removed the Americans "began to view their situation in another light, and to cherish ideas of their future greatness." [252]

It was on the water that the first overt act of resistance to British authority in America was made. As early as November 1747 a Boston mob had forced the release of American seamen who had been seized by a press-gang from the British warships.[253]

American principles and spirit have never tolerated the outrageous press-gang, and it was this abominable custom that brought about acts of retaliation by Americans in 1764 - eleven years before Lexington. Impressment was not an American practice and when the Maidstone impressed some of the crew of an American merchantman arriving at Newport from Africa - before they even saw their families - there was a real revolution. A group of aroused Americans seized one of the Maidstone's boats lying at the wharf and dragged it to the Common and burned it amid the derisive shouts of the people.[254]

The overbearing attitude of the officers detailed to enforce the odious Navigation Acts also snapped the American patience with resulting violence. England stationed vessels along the coast to enforce these acts. So exasperated did the Rhode Islanders become at the St. John cruising off their coast that they fitted out an armed sloop to destroy her and only the arrival of the man-of-war Squirrel at Newport prevented this plan from being carried out.[254]

These and other incidents caused the Americans to organize under the name of Sons of Liberty for resisting what they considered injustice, and they did effective work in resisting the enforcement of the Stamp Act.[255]

August 14, 1765, was the date of the "first forcible resistance to the acts of the British Parliament." On that day "the stamp office in Boston was demolished," in protest of the detested Stamp Act. It was customary for several years after to celebrate this date as an anniversary. It was celebrated as late as 1775 when several toasts were drunk including: "The memorable 14th of August, 1765;" and "the twelve United States."[256]

All this time American principles - the soul of our country - were taking form, and soon they were to force the formation of a state. These principles became audible,

when on October 7, 1765, committees of Americans from nine colonies met at New York, in total disregard of the Governors representing the King. The other four colonies were sympathetic but were unable to attend. This Congress prepared and made public "A Declaration of Right."[257]

In 1766 a protest called the "Westmoreland Resolves" against British tyranny, written by Richard Henry Lee, was made in Virginia.[258]

Beginning with 1768 there was a series of outbreaks by Americans against the English administration of American affairs, culminating with Lexington on April 19, 1775. Letters were exchanged between the colonies regarding the unjust laws. Virginia Americans agreed to boycott English goods.

On June 10, 1768, the acts of the Commanding Officer of the Romney at Boston, regarding some New England seamen his press-gang had forcibly enlisted, incensed the Americans. After sunset the same day the revenue officers seized John Hancock's sloop Liberty for alleged smuggling, as the Americans excited by the seizure, gathered. Refusing to wait for the owner to appear the officers, fearing a rescue, signalled the Romney.[259]

The commanding officer of the Romney himself appeared with her Marines and turning to them commanded them to fire,

whereupon an American exclaimed: "What rascal is that who dares to tell the Marines to fire?" The Englishman then called to the Marines: "Why don't you fire? Fire, I say!" The crowd on this fell back and the sloop was towed away. Then the crowd drove the revenue officers to fly for safety aboard the Romney, and from there they went to the barracks on Castle Island. No one was ever apprehended for these acts for no American would give any information regarding the incident.[259]

The high-handed and arrogant manner of the English officers in enforcing law brought about more violence in 1769. Throughout the years 1765-1775, the British Navy on the North American station was constantly employed in police work and petty expeditions against the dissatisfied colonists.[260]

The armed sloop Liberty, on July 17th of that year seized a brig and a sloop of Connecticut and carried them into Newport, R.I. The master of the brig visited the Liberty and remonstrated as he had complied with the law. Upon leaving the Liberty, his boat was fired upon from the Liberty. This aroused the Americans of Newport and they cut the cables of the Liberty and allowed her to drift ashore near Long Wharf. Here they boarded her, cut her masts away, and threw her guns overboard. She later

drifted on Goat Island where the next night the Americans burned her.[261]

The Parliamentary taxation of the Colonies was now an established fact. The unrepealed duties, including three-pence a pound on tea, were being efficiently collected by the new American customs service, "with the somewhat interested aid of the Royal Navy,"[262] despite frequent outbreaks of the Americans.

On January 16, 1770, the British soldiers cut down the Liberty Pole of the Sons of Liberty in New York City. Two days later scurrilous placards were posted by the British soldiers. This was resented by the Sons of Liberty and some of them collared the soldiers engaged in posting the placards. One soldier rushed one of the Sons of Liberty with his bayonet. Reinforcements arrived for both sides. The soldiers charged the citizens. Several citizens, including a sailor were wounded. This was the first blood of America shed by British soldiers.[263] A tablet was placed at this spot by the Sons of the Revolution of the State of New York, in 1892.[263]

About Washington's Birthday of the year 1770 a random shot fired in Boston by British soldiers in repelling some assailant killed a German lad named Snider. The soldier was cast into prison.[264] This was the prelude to

what is now known as the Boston Massacre that occurred in March, 1770.

Early in that month a quarrel arose between the British soldiers and Americans of Boston. It was more serious than any before. Unquestionably there was a feeling of bitterness against British domineering in political affairs in America. It naturally broke out against a concrete and material something the Americans could see. It was the old story of "direct action" being invoked as contrasted to the use of the ballot which in this case was denied them. Sentries were insulted; frays followed; both sides were reinforced; a soldier was knocked down; he fired and all the soldiers followed his example. Five Americans were killed and others wounded. That was the Boston Massacre of March 5, 1770, a natural resolt to an abhorrent system. It raised passion to a white heat.[265]

On May 16, 1771, North Carolinians became involved in a conflict with the governor at the head of a military force, resulting in deaths on both sides.[266]

An actual naval engagement between the Americans and the British took place in 1772, that has often been referred to as the real "Lexington of the Sea."[267] It resulted in the destruction of the British armed vessel Gaspee. The cause of this action lay in the unjust

Navigation Acts and the unnecessarily harsh administration of them. The Gaspee was a sort of an armed revenue cutter, in the revenue service of England, whose master was arrogant while carrying out his duty. He also excited the additional resentment of the Americans by firing at Providence packets in order to compel them to salute his flag, by lowering theirs. The Americans had recourse to no peaceful means to bring an end to what they felt was foul injustice - they had no vote on the laws which seemed to them to be so oppressive. Forceful, direct action therefore was their only tool - and they used this method against the Gaspee. The Rhode Islanders, therefore, planned the destruction of this annoying vessel.

On June 9, 1772, the Gaspee chased the American sloop Hannah of Providence, R.I. Deliberately the American sloop lured the Gaspee into the shallow water of Narragansett Bay where she went aground hard and fast on Gaspee Point. The Hannah then sailed into Providence with the glad news. An expedition of Americans was immediately organized to destroy the Gaspee. Abraham Whipple, who had achieved fame in Colonial privateering and later in our first Navy, commanded this expeditionary force of Americans that - in true Marine style - on June 10, 1772, captured and burned the Gaspee. The Gaspee's commanding officer was wounded.[268]

The Boston Tea Party took place on the night of December 17, 1773. A number of Americans disguised as Indians prevented the landing of the cargoes of three tea-ships on the wharves at Boston. Three hundred and forty-two chests of tea were destroyed and the party then silently withdrew. The news of this decided action spread like wildfire along the coast and other cities refused to permit the tea to land or, like Charleston, S.C., permitted it to be stored and never used.[269]

These Tea Parties caused great irritation in England. This irritation was increased by the knowledge that American public opinion was behind these rebellious acts.

A band of young patriots, led by John Sullivan (afterwards a Major-General in the Continental Army) attacked Fort William and Mary, at Newcastle in Portsmouth, N.H. Harbor in December, 1774. They proceeded from Portsmouth in a gondola, surprised the fort, and secured one hundred casks of powder that was used later at Bunker Hill.[270] Paul Revere was selected to notify the "Sons" at Portsmouth, N.H. that the British planned to send relief to Fort William and Mary. On December 13, 1774 he notified General Sullivan at Durham and rode on to Portsmouth.[271]

Philadelphia was the place and September 5, 1774, the date of meeting of what we now call the First Continental

Congress. All the colonies were represented except Georgia. On September 16, 1774, the "Honourable delegates now met in General Congress," were "elegantly entertained by the Gentlemen of the City Tavern," in Philadelphia. Nearly five hundred "clergy, such genteel strangers as happened to be in the city," and other "respectable citizens," gave a public dinner to the delegates. After dinner many toasts "were drank, accompanied by music and a discharge of cannon." Some of the toasts were very significant. One to the "perpetual union to the Colonies," and another to no "unconstitutional standing armies," were somewhat threatening to English authority as it was then enforced. However, the King and Queen were toasted and one to "a happy reconciliation between Great Britain and her colonies, on a constitutional ground," pointed to a solution of the grave problem without force, which was never considered or, if so, was discarded by the Ministers.[272]

Through the influence of this first Congress, trade with England was practically stopped.

Parliament then retaliated with a law prohibiting Americans to fish on the Newfoundland banks. This blow hurt New England. Their ships, however, did not long idle for their owners turned them into armed sea-rovers to pounce on English merchant ships and their cargoes.

The New York Journal, in 1774, discarded the arms of the King as an ornamental heading for its paper, and substituted the device of a snake cut into parts, with "Unite or Die" for a motto. Later the Editor issued the snake joined and coiled, with the tail in its mouth, forming a double ring; within the coil was a pillar standing on Magna Carta, surmounted with the cap of Liberty.[273]

The Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence is said to have been made at Charlotte, N.C., on May 20 or 31, 1775.[274]

Much has been written of the fear which the British Army and Navy inspired in the Americans; but such a conclusion is not founded on fact.

No group of people, no matter how harshly they felt themselves treated by the mother country, would have the confidence to assert physical force in defense of what they believed to be their rights, unless they had considerable confidence in their ability to fight.

It takes some degree of military preparation to force a political class to enter warfare. We find this preparation in America from the very beginning. The American colonists became trained to the use of military weapons and to fighting enemies - Indians and Spanish on the south, and French on the north and west. Many Ameri-

cans had served in the war vessels of the British Navy.[275] Thousands of American seamen were prepared to fight on the seas and thousands of tons of American shipping were afloat to carry them.[276] War materials had also been brought over by England to fight the wars and the colonists had learned the art of manufacturing them.[277]

"All revolutions, like armies on the march, advance with pioneers in front. Such men are sometimes a century, sometimes a few years in advance of the general movement. They often point out or shed light on the paths of progress by their sufferings, sometimes by their life's blood."[278] The early American wars against the French, Spanish and Indians, were pioneers of the American Revolution, as were the minor, incipient revolts, against the British prior to April 19, 1775. John Adams wrote that the first revolution was "defence against the French."[279]

The American Nation existed a long time before the American political state took form. The Americans did more than their share in winning the peace of 1763 and thus it might be said, winning their revolution against the French.

Independence had "existed in spirit in most of the essential matters of colonial life, and the British Government had only to seek to establish its power over the

colonies in order to arouse a desire for formal independence."[280]

The fact that many people in England believed in the principles adopted by the American states has no bearing upon the struggle in America, for they should have arisen in their might - by ballot or force - against the system they considered oppressive and iniquitous. Those people in England who did not rebel as did America were as responsible for the acts of their Government as were those who believed in the English Ministry. This must always be considered in keeping our own government abreast of the times. Where men cannot obtain justice by way of the ballot they will adopt "direct action," as did the Americans of 1763-1783.[281]

There is a continuity about the Marines. They have a military-naval character that is as distinctive as the character of the land soldier or that of the sailor of the sea. The first chapter has shown how the Marines, or Soldiers-with-the-Sea-Habit, performed duties on board ships or in expeditions supporting the fleets, of all the Eastern Hemisphere ancient navies, particularly those of Greece and Rome. The History of the Marines was carried forward in that chapter from the Roman Marines through the Royal Marines of Great Britain to the Colonial Marines of

America and they in turn passed the mantle on to the American Marines of the Revolution. In this second chapter the probability of the presence of Marines in the ancient civilizations of America has been suggested; the discovery of America by Europeans has been touched on; the Marine character and duties of American Indians have been mentioned; the many over-seas expeditions by American Colonials, that savored of modern Marine service, have been described; the operations participated in by Spotswood's and Gooch's Marines of 1740-1742 have been covered at length; the Maritime Fighters serving on the numerous Colonial Privateers have been recognized down through the entire period; and the parts played by the Fighting-Men-of-the-Sea in the "protesting period" of 1763 to 1775 has been set forth.

We will now proceed to observe the American Marines of the American Revolution.

CONTINUED WITH NOTES AND INDEX IN PART TWO

EARLY MARINES OF THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE

Material and Sources
of
Chapter II, Volume I
(Part Two)

History of the United States Marine Corps

By

Major Edwin North McClellan, U.S. Marines
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(Notes and Index)

(Only two hundred copies made)

First Edition
September 1, 1932

FORENOTE

This compilation is not the final manuscript of this Chapter but represents only material and sources upon which it will be based. Since the information expressed in this History required original research, which has not been completed, it was decided to publish it first in mimeographed form. Considerable additional information will have been collected by the time it is desirable to write the final manuscript for printing. It is purposely made voluminous in order to make public, details of early Marine Corps History that obviously will not be included in a printed work because of lack of space. The plan provides for seven large volumes divided into appropriate chapters.

Only two hundred copies of this chapter have been made. If for any reason those to whom it is sent do not desire to retain it please inform the Historical Section, U.S. Marine Corps, Washington, D.C. and arrangements will be made for its return.

As a matter of convenience this chapter is divided into two parts.

The following form of citation is suggested if it is desired to cite, either in published works, or manuscript, any information contained herein:-

(McClellan, Hist., U.S.M.C., 1st ed., I,
Ch. II, p--)

NOTES

CHAPTER II, VOLUME ONE
(Part Two)

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1. See Century Mag., XLIII, January, 1892, 470.

2. Of nick-names he has many - "Leatherneck", "Gyrene," "Devil Dog," etc.

3. "Cut the ancestral knot that binds us to the waters of the oceans, seas, bays, gulfs, rivers, lakes and other wet spots and with the same motion you cut the throat of the Corps." (M.C. Gaz., Nov., 1930, p. 7)

4. In order to be eligible to the membership of the Society of Colonial Wars one's ancestor must have "served as a military, naval or Marine officer, or as a soldier, sailor or Marine, or as a privateersman under the authority of the Colonies, which afterward formed the United States," at some time between the "Settlement of Jamestown, May 13, 1607" and "Lexington, April 19, 1775." (Soc. Colonial Wars, D. of C. 1904).

5. This prophecy frequently has been made and is justified by articles in magazines and newspapers. The American mind is becoming conscious of an interesting civilized Past.

6. Knut Gjerset, Hist. of Iceland, 5,9-10; Crantz, in Hist. of Greenland, I, 222 states that according to learned Icelander Arngrim Jonas, Iceland was first discovered by Naddok who called it Snowland; See also Hart, Amer. Nation, III, 3-4; Harper Encyc. of U.S. Hist. I, 11; Story of Naddok discovering Snowland told in Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist., and Romance, I, 201. For Viking Ships see Cotterill and Little, Ships and Sailors, 46-51; Culver, Book of Old Ships, 25-29.

7. Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., of America, I, 61-72; Harper, Encyc. of U.S. Hist., I, 110; Nat. Intell., July 16, 1852; Fiske, Old Virginia and Her Neighbours, I,18; The Vinland Voyages by Matthias Thordarson, translated by Thorstina J. Walters; Leif Eriksson, Discoverer of America, Edward F. Gray; Narratives of the Discovery of America, Edited by A. W. Lawrence and Jean Young; The Nation August 13, 1924, 161; for story of Norumbega,

7. Continued.
see Winsor, Narr. and Crit. Hist. of America, III, 169-170; Hildreth, Hist. of U.S., I, 34, wrote that "their alleged visit to North America, though not without warm advocates, rests on evidence of too mythic a character to find a place in authentic history;" "Bjarni Herjolfsson of Iceland discovered America in the year 987." (Wash. Post, Feb. 19, 1931); Cook, Virginia, 1-3, citing Shakespeare's Tempest, questions these discoveries; Knut Gjerset, Hist. of Iceland, 101, states that in the Erikssage Rauoa, Leif Eriksson is credited with the discovery of America - Vinland, Woodland or Stoneland - but in Flateyjarbok Bjarni Herjolfsson receives the credit; Knut Gjerset, Hist. of Iceland, 103-104, states that Thorvald, went on a later voyage to Vinland with "a crew of 30 men" spent the winter in Labrador and in the following summer killed eight natives in skirmish but Thorvald was mortally wounded with an arrow; see also Crantz, Hist. of Greenland, I, 235, describing this fight, and calling the country "Wineland" or "Vinland"; see Associated Press despatch in Washington Star, November 8, 1924, for claim that a Norse Expedition reached the State of Washington in 1010 A.D.; it really is amazing to find anyone who, having studied all the evidence, does not conclude that these hardy Norsemen did not do what their sagas state. See also Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 202; M.C. Gaz., June 1917, 121; Bancroft, Hist., U.S., I, 5-7 is skeptical that they ever reached America, citing Thorfaeus, Historia Winlandiae; Robertson, Hist. Amer.; Wheaton History Northmen, 22-28; Belknap, Am. Biog., V, 47-58; Irving, Life of Columbus, III, 292-300; Franklin's Works, VI, 102; Schoning, Hist., Norv., I, 309; Leslie, Jameson and Murray, Dis. & Ad. Polar Seas, 87, etc.; Harpers, LXIV pp. 111-119; Hist. Rhode Island and Newport, Peterson, 177-178; The Sub-Arctic Ex. of Field Museum of Chicago under Donald B. McMillan, found Norse ruins in Labrador Island, September 4, 1926, (A.P. despatch of Wash. Post, Sept. 15, 1929); For Stone Mill at Newport, R.I. and Northmen see History of Rhode Island and Newport by Edward Peterson, pp. 168-178; "First white settlers of Minnesota probably Norsemen." (Wash. Star, August 20, 1932).

8. St. Johnston, The Islanders of the Pacific, p. 293. See Fusang, or the Discovery of America by Chinese Buddhist Priests in the Fifth Century, by Charles G. Leland.

9. Pytheas, a Greek, undertook a voyage to Britain and the far North about 330 B.C. He apparently reached the Orkney and Shetland Islands and penetrated to a "land called Thule," which many believe was Iceland. It is also believed that long before this the Irish (Celtic) monks were inhabitants of Iceland. From 521 to 597 A.D., Kormak made three voyages from Ireland in search of Iceland, then called the Desert in the Ocean. "On the eve of national observance of Columbus Day tomorrow, geographers still are asking whether St. Brendan, Irish sailor-priest, crossed the Atlantic Ocean in the Sixth Century." (Honolulu Advertiser, October 12, 1927. See also Knut Gjerset, Hist. Iceland, 2-3); for claim of Irish regarding discovery of America and voyage of the "Sons of Ua Corra in 540 A.D. see Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 201, and see also Wash. Sunday Star, March 15, 1925; Honolulu Advertiser, Oct. 12, 1927; The Norsemen took possession of the Shetland and Faroe Islands not later than 700 A.D. (Knut Gjerset, Hist. of Iceland, 1-8); Bowen writes that "Pytheas, the celebrated navigator and geographer, hailed from Marseilles." (The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 2.); For claim of Portuguese discovery of America see N.Y. Times September 30, 1923. Century Mag., November, 1923, 47. Barring the American Indians "a claim to the honor has at one time or another been put in for practically every race and nation under the sun, including the Phoenicians, the Egyptians, the Ten Lost Tribes, the Portuguese, the Spaniards, the Chinese, the Japanese, Christopher Columbus, the Northmen, the Welsh, and last and foremost, the Irish." (Wash. Star. March 15, 1925); Washington Irving in his Life of Columbus, p. 103 Stratford Edition, stated Columbus on his second voyage on the Island of Guadaloupe "found to their surprise, the sternpost of a European vessel, which caused much speculation, but which, most probably, was the fragment of some wreck, borne across the Atlantic by the constant current which accompanies the trade winds."

10. It is said that many Welsh words in some of the Indian languages and Indian Traditions, as far south as Peru, allude to white Indians (Schomberg, Naval Chronology, I, 6, citing Cam. Adm. I, 195, and Anderson, Original of Commerce); Winsor, Narr. and Crit. Hist. of Amer., I, 70-72; there is no evidence that the Northmen saw more than the coasts of Labrador and New England - possibly Newfoundland, and the landing place of Madoc is

10. Continued.
wholly conjectural. (Harper Encyc. of U.S. Hist., I, 110); Welsh Indians idea refuted in "The Royal Navy," by Clowes, 310-311, but the same authority on pp. 303-305 gives an interesting story of Madoc; Cooke, Virginia, 1-3, doubts incidents; Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 203 also doubts Madoc incident. "Various writers have asserted the existence on the American continent of a race of Indians, descended from the ancient Britons. There are traditions of a number of people from Wales landing on the continent of America, as far back as the year 1170; whose descendants are said still to form a distinct tribe, and to speak the Welsh language" wrote Charles William Janson in 1807 in "The Stranger in America", pp. 270-271.

11. It is probable that Columbus visited Iceland early in life, about 1477, and learned from the Icelanders of their ancestors' cruises and glories, (Nat. Intell., July 16, 1852, quoting the Washington Republic, and Newport, R.I., Mercury); or at least talked with these hardy sea-rovers of their voyage to Vinland. In 1298 Marco Polo, a Venetian, was made prisoner in a naval battle between the Venetians and the Genoese. His imprisonment resulted in the "Travels of Marco Polo" which "led directly to the discovery of America." (Wells, Outline of History, 678).

12. Hart, American Nation, III, 20-21; Cotterill and Little, Ships and Sailors, 108-109; See also St. John, Hayti or the Black Republic, 29. For an interesting account of Columbus and his discovery see Harper's LXXXIV, pp. 728-740.

13. Nav. Inst. Proc., January, 1925, 97-98, in an article "Admiral Columbus" sustains this. See also Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 246 for information about Watling Island. For the "Navigation of Columbus" see Nav. Inst. Proc., April, 1926, pp. 665-673.

14. The Century Magazine, January, 1892, p. 470; see Wash. Star, January 18, 1932, for expedition of Smithsonian Institute to San Salvador and Cat Islands.

15. Washington Irving's Columbus, I, 417-421; Century Dictionary and Cyc. IX, 588. See Note 182.

16. Guam Recorder, Aug. 1931, p. 345.

17. Hart, American Nation, III, 120-127; Schomberg, Naval Chronology, I, 20-21; Hildebrand, Magellan 215 tells of visit to the Ladrones or "Robber Isles," of the visit to Samar (p. 217) and of Magellan's death on Mactan on April 27, 1521 (pp. 247-251); Century Dict. and Cyc.IX, p.640; Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 239 publishes illustration, "Cavendish at Ladrone Is., 1588." Read E. F. Benson's Ferdinand Magellan.

18. Channing, Hist. of U.S., I, 121; Drake did not enter the Golden Gate; nor did he repair his ship on the shores of Drake's Bay are the negative conclusions reached by Henry R. Wagner in "Sir Francis Drake's Voyage around the World." Read E.F. Benson's Drake. "In popular estimation the BAY which Drake entered is believed to be that of San Francisco;" others believe "it must have been Bodega Bay. There is, however, another bay not far from these, and lying between them, known formerly under the very name of Sir Francis Drake's Bay, though better known as Jack's Harbor. This, on a careful examination of the subject, seems to have been the true and only bay which Drake ever visited on the coast." (Annals of San Francisco and History of California, by Frank Soule, John H. Gihon, and James Nisbet (date of 1854) page 32);

19. See Chap. IV, Vol. I, pp. 9,10,30,32 for "Gentlemen Sailors", "Gentlemen Seamen" and Gentlemen Volunteers," the Marines who served on the privateers in the American Revolution.

20. Corbett, Drake and The Tudor Navy, II, 29-61; Lediard, Nav. Hist., Eng., I, 214; Col. Geo. C. Thrope, U.S.M.C., described this operation in M.C.Gaz., December, 1920, 359, as follows: One of special interest is that of the landing in 1585 or 1586 west of Santo Domingo City to take that place very much the same as was done by American Marines in 1916, with the difference that, while the Dominicans fled in the latter case, the Spaniards resisted with infantry, cavalry, artillery, and by driving a herd of long-horned cattle upon the attacking British Marines; See also Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 255. For capture of St. Augustine by Drake about 1586 see Hammond's Quaint and Historic Forts, 196-197; Hawkins also visited Port Isabela, Puerta Plata.

21. M.C. Gaz., June, 1923, 98-109; See also Fiske, Old Va. and Her Neighbors, II, 271; Hamilton, Hist. of Florida, 93-95; D.A.R. Mag., September, 1924, 572; Shipp, Hist. of De Soto and Florida; French, B. F. Ribault's Narrative in Historical Collections of Louisiana and Florida; Snowden and Cutler, Hist. of South Carolina, I, 13 et seq.; Courtenay, Genesis of South Carolina, 1562 to 1670 xxxi, et. seq.; Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, I, 270 is in error in stating Fort Caroline was located at Port Royal, S.C.; The American Rifleman, June 1, 1924, 12; Motoring, May or June, 1930; Parris Island News, March 26, 1926 contains long article describing unveiling of monument; The Pathfinder, January 23, 1932. M.C. Gaz., June 1923, pp. 98-109 containing a note that subsequent to writing the article the author had been informed by Professor Bolton, Univ. of California, that existing manuscripts establish that the Spanish explorer Menendez subsequently removed and destroyed Ribault's stone pillar (p. 108); Laudonniere's Account of First Voyage of the Huguenots, translated by Hakluyt in his "Divers Voyages," etc; Narrative of Le Moyne with illustrations; "Parris Island the Site of the First Attempt at a Settlement of White People Within What is Now South Carolina," Bulletin of the Historical Commission of South Carolina, No. 5; George Bancroft's Hist. of U.S. Vol. I, 61-63 with notes; Snowden, Hist. of S.C.

22. Shipp, Hist. of De Soto and Florida, 495-506; Fairbanks, Hist.Florida, 93-95; Lowery, The Spanish Settlement in U.S.; See also Hakluyt, Early Voyages, 378; French, Historical Coll. Louisiana and Florida, 188-189; Lodge Hist. Eng. Col. in America, 158-159; Salley, Bulletins, Hist. Comm., South Carolina, 4-6; "Twenty-six of Ribault's followers, however, agreed to remain, under the command of Albert, one of his lieutenants." Ribault sailed away in the middle of July. No relief arrived from France and dissentions arose. Laclerc led a mutiny, in which Albert lost his life. A small ship was built and the Remnant sailed for France. Becalmed for 20 days and starving. About to cast lots to see who they would eat when Laclerc offered himself for this purpose, and having eaten Laclerc, the survivors were picked up and taken to England. (Dewhurst, Hist. of St. Augustine, 26-28); Florida unveiled a monument to commemorate spot at Mayport where Jean Ribault landed on May Day, 1562, on May 1, 1924 (D.A.R. Mag., Sept. 1924, 572);

22. Continued.
St. Augustine settled in 1565 (Cohen, Notices of Florida, 16-17); Dewhurst, Hist., St. Augustine, 26-32; Florida celebrated Menendez Day on April 3, 1925 (Wash.Post, March 15, 1925).

23. Leatherneck, July 5, 1924; A. & N. Reg. June 28, 1924, 605; Transactions, Huguenot Soc. of S.C., Nov. 29, 1924. In 1918 Colonel John Millis, Corps of Engineers, U.S. Army, visited this post, and stated that from historical investigations made by him he felt certain that it was on this island that the French, under Ribault, made a settlement in 1562. The site indicated by him had, without question, been occupied by some old fortification, but at the time of his visit the slight remaining parapets had been leveled off and remnants of the moat filled, the site being occupied in connection with the training of men. It appears from historical investigation, that a French expedition under Ribault, a French Huguenot, under the patronage of Coligny, visited these waters in the summer of 1562. Ribault decided to leave a colony of about 40 men to hold the place during his absence in Europe. Prior to leaving, a fort with stockades and moat was constructed. Owing to mismanagement, etc., dissensions soon arose amongst those left behind, they killed their commander, constructed a pinnace, and set sail for France, being eventually picked up by some British ship. A full account of the voyage as written by Laudonniere is given in Hakluyt's Voyages. In compliance with the expressed wish of Headquarters United States Marine Corps and of the Secretary of the Navy, the original site was cleared, exploration trenches were dug, and from these was determined the actual location of the stockade as originally built and as subsequently enlarged. Butts of the original cedar logs were found in an exceptionally fine state of preservation. The stockade has been marked by pillars and chains, the latter having been provided by the Commandant of the Navy Yard, Charleston, S.C. The parapet and banquette have been largely restored, and the moat excavated. Eventually it is planned to place a monument with an appropriate inscription in the interior of the original earthwork. (Annual Report, of the Major General Commandant, U.S.M.C., 1923, p.19). "Brigadier General Cole has recently excavated and discovered the piling of an old stockade built in 1562 by the French settlers in what was the earliest of the European colonies in the limits of the present United

23. Continued.
States. The wood piling is well preserved to this day. A park is being made of the site, and this Navy Yard (Charleston, S.C.) has furnished them with some condemned small anchor chain to properly enclose the park." (A.P. Niblack, Commandant Sixth Naval District to Chief of Naval Operations, 8 March, 1923, M.C. Arch.) "No complete report of General Cole concerning the excavations has been found. However, full information concerning the history of the old French fort, the excavations, etc. at Parris Island is contained in a pamphlet, entitled "Transactions of the Huguenot Society of South Carolina, No.31", published by the Huguenot Society of South Carolina, Charleston, S.C., 1926. This pamphlet also contains a picture of the monument erected by the Government of the United States to mark the site of Charlesfort built by Jean Ribault, 1562, together with an address by General Cole, the Secretary of the Navy, General John A. Lejeune, and other notables on the occasion of the unveiling of the monument in 1926." (Officer-in-Charge, Hist.Sec.,U.S.M.C., to D.D. Wallace, Wofford College, Spartanburg, S.C., 15 January, 1929, M.C.Arch.)

24. "Emphasis as to early landings here in our America, has heretofore centered wholly on Virginia, Massachusetts, and New York. But recent translations in the archives of the Indes Library, Seville, Spain have changed all of that! Today history altogether stresses that area stretching from Santa Elena to San Augustin as being the arena where came to pass our country's earliest, most vital and most hotly contested events. Separated only by Port Royal River and lying close together and historically blended are, today, the three islands, Parris, St. Helena and Port Royal. Whether the first island of the trinity was named for its beauty, Paris, after the French city, by Ribault, who also named Port Royal River, or was called Parris after the man (Colonel Alexander Parris) who was the colony's first treasurer and whose home was on the island, no one knows. Localities in olden days carried no well defined borders. The whole section here by the Spanish was called Santa Elena; by the English, Port Royal, and by the Indians, Chicora. Of a certainty, however, we know that on present day Parris Island, America's first pilgrims and her first would-be settlers, the French Huguenots, May 27, 1562, were landed; that on this island the Huguenots, 1562, built our first American

24. Continued.
fort, Charlesfort, and built here too, our country's first ocean-going sailing ship; that on this island, as her most northern outpost, Spain, under King Phillip II, built Fort San Felipe in 1566 and Fort San Marcos in 1577, and we know that all this happened on Means Creek on the southeast end of the island. * * * It is not generally known that Parris Island was marked for a naval station by the British - but the Revolution put an end to the plan. * * * The Parris Island forts make a story of great romance. They are equally a story of tragedy and failure. Charlesfort, 1562, only a short distance from the later San Marcos, and only a small frail one, was totally destroyed in 1564 by the Spaniard, Rojas, who left behind no vestige of it and no possibility of its rediscovery. * * * In 1586 redoubtable Drake of England played havoc with San Augustin and Marques was forced to reduce San Marcos, evacuate Santa Elena and concentrate all efforts to the relief and rebuilding of San Augustin. Many relics were in evidence of San Marcos until 1917, when the Marines levelled the place, thinking the relics to be part of a Civil War fort. * * * Till the revelations of Seville, a few years ago, there had been no dream of Parris Island forts save that of Charlesfort. The relocation of this fort was undertaken [by the Marines] * * * That this was Charlesfort there was not a shadow of a doubt and what the fort needed was a national monument dedicated to the Huguenots! And when the foundation was laid Huguenots from everywhere gathered on Parris Island - the city of Paris sent an eloquent speaker. And every visitor today to Parris Island goes to see this tall granite shaft beside Means Creek - one of the most notable and beautiful of our American monuments. The monument is purely of French design and artistry and with many French emblems. On one of its sides we read: 'Erected 1935, by the Government of the United States of America to mark the first stronghold of France on this Continent.' If we had waited till the rediscovery of Charlesfort there never would have been on Parris Island a sacrosanct shrine granite shaft commemorating 1562! Down in old Spanish Catholic San Marcos Fort there is a tragedy it's true, in monuments! But the old fort gave us the monument and it will guard it well and furthermore the Spanish Inquisition is dead! What really counts is that the Huguenot landed on Means Creek, Parris Island, and that on Means Creek, Parris Island, stands a Huguenot monument! Not often in the world's

24. Continued.
history do such errors occur. The Seville translations showing measurements and material not only prove that (the Marines had) uncovered San Marcos Fort but also show that there was a total annihilation of Charlesfort by Rojas. * * * Today as taken over and owned by the United States Government, Parris Island is known the world around, for her Marines have sailed all the seas and trod the soil of every land! But what a marvelous history and tradition is forever hers - this oldest of all our American islands!"(Article "The Romance of Parris Island" by N. L. Willet, in Leatherneck, October, 1931, pp.7-8,51). "Work in the Spanish archives seems to have convinced Professor H. E. Bolton, and his co-worker, Miss Ross, that the ruins on Parris Island are of Spanish origin instead of French. See The Spanish Settlement at Port Royal, 1565-1586 by A. S. Salley Jr. in The S. C. Historical and Genealogical Magazine XXVI, 31, January, 1925; also The Spanish Period of Georgia and South Carolina History, 1566-1702, Bulletin of University of Georgia XXIII, May, 1923; and Spanish Settlements in S.C., in Ga. Hist. Soc.Mag. V, 251, Sep. 1923." (Anne King Gregorie to Major McClellan, 27 April 1931, M.C. Arch.)

25. Cooper, Hist. Navy, I, 3-5; Channing, Hist., U.S. , I, 164-170.

26. Wilstach, Potomac Landings, 14-16; Wilstach, Tidewater Virginia, 52; I will not return until I have "found Patawomek, or the head of this water you conceit to be endlesse." (II Captain John Smith by Bradley, 416). On June 16, 1608 he "fell in with the river Patowomek" 30 miles up. Two savages conducted them "up a little bayed creeke, towards Onawmanient." On p. 8 of the booklet Quantico published in 1930 is: "Quantico on the Potomac has always been. Its quiet woods, sturdy ridges, beautiful Potomac-shore saw the aborigines long before the Red Men. The American Indians based at Quantico. Bows and arrows and wooden swords - fighting afloat on the Potomac. John Smith saw them - and fought them - in 1608. On his way up the Patawomek to near the site of Washington." The site of the "pallizadoed towne" of Tocwogh described by Captain John Smith in 1608 as a flourishing Indian settlement has been relocated by the Smithsonian Institute on Kent Island, opposite Annapolis. (Wash. Star, May 14, 1930). The Washington

26. Continued.
Star for May 24, 1935 carries a full page story of John Smith's visit to site of Washington and gives June 16, 1608 as the eventful date; John Smith's History of Virginia published in 1624. (Mentioned in Military Engineer, September-October, 1931, p.437). "In his exploration of the Chesapeake, Captain Smith used a boat" of "two tuns." "He had a crew of 12 men, and complained that none of them were sailors." Map (p. 436) shows "Point Comfort," "Powhatan Flu" is the James River. "Patuxunt" where 300 years later U. S. and Great Britain fought a naval battle. (Military Engineer, September-October, 1931, p. 437).

27. The Brent Family after a few years at St. Mary's crossed the Potomac and bought land in the neighborhood of Aquia Creek. Land grants to this family between 1651 and 1666 show that they owned 9,610 acres on the Virginia shore some of which was located as far north as Hunting Creek where later the city of Alexandria appeared. (Wilstach, Potomac Landings,71); "These aristocrats were not averse to using the church to perpetuate their grandeur. * * * sovereigns themselves * * * sent engraved communion plate to several colonial parish churches. At Wycomico Church in Northumberland the tankard bore the inscription: 'The gift of Bartholomew Shriver, who died in 1720, and of Bartholomew his son, who died in 1727, for the use of the parish of Great Wycomico, in the County of Northumberland, in 1730.' The plate was inscribed: 'The gift of Reynard Delafiae to Quantico Church.' " (Wilstach, Potomac Landings, 242-243); "Quantico on the Potomac has always been. Its quiet woods, sturdy ridges, and beautiful Potomac-shore saw the aborigines long before the Red Men. The American Indians based at Quantico. Bows and arrows and wooden swords - fighting afloat in canoes on the Potomac. John Smith saw them - and fought them - in 1608. On his way up the "Patawomek" to near the site of Washington. Situated about forty miles south of Washington on the main line of the Richmond, Fredericksburg and Potomac Railroad it is the very center of one of the most historic areas of the United States. George Washington, from his very youth, knew the spot. Alexandria, Mount Vernon, Pohick, Quantico, Aquia Village, Fredericksburg and other localities well knew the greatest of Americans. And his brother, Lawrence, an American

27. Continued.
Marine of 1741, also knew Quantico. The Colonial period of Quantico's history was brimmed with bustling trade for Quantico Creek became a point of commercial interest. Came the Scots and settled Dumfries on Quantico Creek. Archibald Henderson, Commandant of the Corps from 1820 to 1859, was born near Dumfries." (Booklet called "United States Marine Corps, Marine Barracks, Quantico, Va., 1930," p. 8); "We visit as he [George Washington] did homes or good neighbors at Dumfries * * *" (Wash. Post, Nov. 2, 1930, reviewing Andrews "George Washington's Country."); The sites of the Marine Corps Base and village of Quantico were a part of the grant of land given by King George to the Brent family, one of whom married Lady Baltimore's daughter. This grant comprised all the land lying on Aquia Creek. Brent's Village, or Aquia Village, was the largest tobacco port in the surrounding country - tobacco being used as currency in those days. It was one of the largest relay stations between New York and Florida on the old stage line, and also the center where all big horse races and cock fights were held. * * * The old graveyard is on the edge of the village. Most of the Brent family, including Lady Baltimore's daughter, are buried there. There are a number of graves and many contain very unusual inscriptions. (Article, "History of Quantico" in Leatherneck, July 24, 1920, p. 1, M.C.Arch.); "In the shadow of the famed Aquia Crucifix in Brent Cemetery near Quantico, Va., United States Marines in full dress uniform today at eleven o'clock will assist in the celebration of Catholic Church services. The Crucifix was erected in commemoration of the first proclamation of religious tolerance granted in Virginia. * * * Several thousand persons are expected to attend the services which will be held on property settled in 1686 by Colonel Giles Brent, the first Catholic colonist of Virginia." (Wash.Star, October 2, 1931).

28. Wilstach, Potomac Landings, 21-25; See also Tyler, Encyc. of Biog. Virginia, I, 236; Later Captain Henry Fleet, who owned three ships, went up the Potomac as far as the Falls. (Wilstach, Potomac Landings, 21-25); Wilstach's Tidewater Virginia, 56-57.

29. Wilstach, Potomac Landings, 143-144; "Came the Scots

29. Continued.
and settled Dumfries on Quantico Creek." (Booklet called "United States Marine Corps, Marine Barracks, Quantico, Va. 1930" p. 8); "The mystery of old Dumfries, Va., has been solved at last! Old store-books and the business correspondence of 'Messrs. Huie, Reid & Co., merchants of Dumfries,' recently brought to light, revive the life of this once prosperous, important town on the Potomac," is the beginning of a long article by Bessie Wilmarth Gahn in the Wash. Post Magazine, May 18, 1930; for early references to Quantico see indexes of subsequent chapters of this history.

30. Cooper, Hist. Navy, I, 4-7; Fiske, Old Va. and Her Neighbors, I, 170-171; Kingsford, Hist. Canada, I, 32; Winsor, Narr. and Crit. Hist., Amer., III, 140; Hildreth, Hist. U.S., I, 114-115; Cooke, Virginia, 107-109; Tyler, Encyc. Biog. Virginia, I, 41, states "June 28, 1613, he sailed from Virginia under orders of Sir Thomas Dale and drove away the French from New England, thus keeping that country open to the Pilgrim Fathers, who came seven years later." Henry Cabot Lodge in his "Short History of the English Colonies," p. 18 wrote that "Argall was a sea-captain of piratical tastes, who had been conspicuous in Dale's administration of the abduction of Pocahontas, for pillaging and burning the huts of the French fishermen in Acadia", and "for bullying the Dutch traders on Manhattan." The French had a fort and settlement on Castine Bay called Pentagoet. (Quaint and Historic Forts by Hammond, p. 93).

31. Neal, Hist. New England, II, 342-343; Hildreth, Hist. U.S., I, 114-115, 136, 151, 237; These hostilities with the French were the first premonition of a mighty conflict not to be fully entered upon until the days of Argall's grandchildren, and not to be finally decided until the days of their grandchildren, when Wolfe climbed the Heights of Abraham, at Quebec. (Fiske, Old Va. & Her Neighbors, I, 170-171); Trumbull, Hist. of Conn., I, 18-19; Cooke, Virginia, 107-109; Tyler, Cyc. Biog. Virginia, I, 41; "this was the first warlike maritime expedition attempted by the American colonists, if a few parties sent in boats against" Indians, be excepted. (Cooper, Hist. of the Navy of the U.S., I, 4-7); Lediard, Naval Hist.,

31. Continued.
England, II, 455-456; Argall became a member of the Council for New England in 1620. "In the first year of Charles' reign he sailed against the French at the head of a fleet of 24 vessels, and disappears from recorded history." (Channing, Hist. U.S., I, 196); Abbot, Naval Hist. U.S., 1-20.

32. Barry, Hist., Mass., 1-11; Trumbull, Hist. Conn., I, 18-19; Bartholomew Gosnold built a fort (or more properly speaking, a trading house in 1602 on Elizabeth's Isle (Cuttyhunk). (Coast Artillery Journal, February, 1923, p. 101). See also Morrison, Mar. Hist. of Mass., 8; Hutchinson Hist. Col. Mass. Bay, 1. "The inscriptions on Dighton Rock, near Berkley, Mass. clearly prove that the first European inhabitant of New England was a Portuguese, Professor Edmund Burke Delabarre of Brown University told members of the Club Vasco da Gama." (N.Y. Times, May 4, 1930); In 1614 John Smith, with two ships, made a map of Penobscot to Cape Cod. (Military Engineer, September-October, 1931, p. 437).

33. Channing's History of the U.S., I, 304-306.

34. We know that the Pilgrims "adopted a military organization and chose for their leader Miles Standish, who had served as a soldier in Holland." (Hildreth, Hist., U.S., I, 166, 168-171).

35. See Charles Ray in "movie", The Courtship of Miles Standish; A description of what these Plymouth Marines did sounds like advanced base work. On the 28th (O.S.) the passengers were landed from the Mayflower, and at once "so many as could went to worke on the hill, where we purposed to build our platforme for our Ordinance, and which doth command all the plaine, and the Bay, and from whence we may see farre into the sea." (Coast Artillery Journal, February, 1923, p. 105); See also for early Mass. Naval matters Morison, Mar. Hist., Mass., 9; Cooper, Hist., Navy, I, 8; Hutchinson, Hist. Mass. Bay, 103; Mass. ship-building began with the launching in 1631 of Governor Winthrop's Blessing of the Bay on the Mystic River. (Morison, Mar. Hist. of Mass., 14; Maclay, Hist. of Amer. Privateers, 35); The 400-ton ship Seafort was built at Boston in 1643 but was wrecked

35. Continued.
on the Spanish coast, decoyed by false lights ashore. (Morison, Mar. Hist., Mass., 14-15); For brief story of Mass. Bay Colony see Wash. Post Magazine, June 15, 1930.

36. Cooper Hist., Navy, I, 7-8; "Not long after the landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth a ship yard was established on the south bank of the Mystic River in Medford, Mass. From this yard the bark Blessing of the Bay was launched on July 4, 1631. This was the first ship regularly built in this country." (Nav. Inst. Proc., February, 1929, p. 132).

37. Hart, Amer. Nation, IV, 136; Neill, Founders of Maryland, 51-56; Hildreth, Hist. of U.S., I, 208-210; Fiske, Old Va. and Her Neighbors, 286 et seq.; Harper, Encyc. U.S. Hist., II, 181; Wilstach, Potomac Landings, 27-30, 319-320; Wilstach, Tidewater Maryland, 41-42; Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., Amer. III, 527; Lodge, Short Hist., Eng. Col. in Amer. 98; Cooke, Virginia, 178-180, wrote that "the Calvert fleet went back in triumph, with the captured Kent pinnace and the remnant of its crew to St. Mary's, the Maryland capital;" On May 10, 1635, there was another naval engagement between these forces in the Harbor of Great Wighcocomoco, at the mouth of the Pocomoke in which Thomas Smith, commanding for Claiborne, defeated the Marylanders with more bloodshed. (Old Virginia and Her Neighbors, 286 et seq.); Channing, Hist., U.S., I, 252-258. "Clayborne's men were defeated and taken prisoners." (Bancroft, Hist., U.S., I, 267); "Nothing tangible remains of Claiborne's days, unless the low mounds intermittenly in evidence across the south end of the island are, as some have believed, the remains of the earth works, thrown up by Claiborne's partisans in their defence against Calvert three centuries ago." (Wilstach, Tidewater Maryland, 123).

38. Cooper, Hist., Navy, I, 10-13; "This combat is the earliest action upon American waters of which we have any trustworthy records." (Willis J. Abbot, Nav. Hist., U.S., 1-20); Trumbull, Hist., Conn., I, 69-73; Maclay, Hist. Amer. Privateers, 28-29.

39. The English made efforts to settle Nova Scotia, but in 1632 Acadie was relinquished by the English; See Hutchinson, Hist., Mass. Bay, 127-135.

40. Morison, Mar. Hist., Mass.; Maclay, Hist., Amer. Privateers, 29-30.

41. Trumbull, Hist. Conn., I, 161-162; "The Colonial fleet [of Mass.] for the most part, consisted of small single-decked sloops, the usual rig for coasters, and lateen-rigged ketches, the favorite rig for fishermen, of 20 to 30 tons burthen, and 35 to 50 feet long." (Morison, Mar. Hist. Mass., 15); People of New Amsterdam astounded to see, in the spring of 1649, the La Garce (Blauveldt) sailing into the harbor with a prize the Spanish bark Tobasco, which he had captured in the Tobasco River. After many years Tobasco decided to be NOT a legal prize. (J.H. Innes, New Amsterdam and Its People, 70); In 1673 or a century before the Declaration of Independence there were in Boston and adjacent ports, 750 American built vessels between 6 to 250 tons of which 30 were over 100 tons. In 1680 Connecticut had 24 vessels. (Cooper, Hist. Navy of U.S., I, 15-16). The Dutch of New Amsterdam maintained privateers. As early as 1642 they had sent out the frigate La Garce. She was operating as late as 1656 and in 1649 captured the Spanish bark Tobasko in the Bay of Campechie. (Jameson, Privateering and Piracy, Colonial Period, 9-13). In 1678 La Salle launched a vessel of 10 tons on Lake Ontario and in 1679 one of 60 tons on Lake Erie. (Cooper, Hist., Navy, I, 16); "La Salle, in 1679, voyaged to Green Bay on the Griffon, the first sail vessel of the Lakes above the Falls, and which he had built on the bank of the Cayuga Creek, a tributary of the Niagara." (Kelton, Annals of Fort Mackinac, 35); "The First Vessel on the Upper Lakes, Built by La Salle, 1679," is caption of an illustration. (id.34)

42. Cooper, Hist., Navy, I, 13-14; Maclay, Privateers, 34-35.

43. Barry, Hist. Mass., 345-366; Channing, Hist., U.S., I, 483; Soc. Col. Wars, D.C., 92; It was during this period that the Dutch ship Holy Ghost, of Amsterdam, renamed the Happie Entrance, was taken as a prize, carried into the Barbadoes and eventually to Nantasket and Salem. (Jameson, Privateering and Piracy, Colonial Period, 17-26).

44. Neal, Hist., New Eng., II, 342-343; In 1673 a small

44. Continued.
Dutch Fleet for a time possessed itself of New York but was restored in 1674 by the Treaty of Westminster. (Trumbull, Hist., Conn., I, 323-324; Channing, Hist., U.S., II, 50-52); In 1665-1666 Connecticut kept a small armed vessel cruising off Watch Hill, in order to prevent the Narragansett Indians from crossing to attack the Montauk tribe, which had been taken under the protection of the Colony. (Cooper, Hist., Navy, I, 14).

45. Nav. Inst. Proc., June, 1932, 860.

46. New York Herald-Tribune, June 9, 1931 which also reports that "Colonel E. A. Greene, of the Marine Corps" made an address. It has been suggested that Richard Nicolls was a British Marine officer.

47. Bancroft, Hist., U.S., II, 213-234; Channing, Hist., II, 84-89; See also Hildreth, Hist., U.S., I, 528-550; See Tyler, Encyc. Biog. Va., I, 46 for Berkeley's Life.

48. Edye, Hist., Royal Marines, I, 198; the disturbances were caused "by the imposition of taxes which the Colonists regarded as unjust." (Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 22).

49. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 22; Edye, Hist., Royal Marines, I, 199.

50. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 22; Edye, Hist., Royal Marines, I, 200; "Never having seen any information published either establishing or concerning Marine Corps colors (generally accepted as Scarlet and Gold) it is recommended that it would be an excellent idea to have some official designation of what our 'Athletic Colors' are and a description of their arrangement in an athletic flag or pennant. This would lead to uniformity of the colors and the pennant throughout the Marine Corps and I believe, (if you determine to issue an order) would be the first order issued in the military service of this character." (Memo, Major Edwin N. McClellan to Major General Commandant, 28 November, 1933, M.C. Arch.); It was during Bacon's Rebellion in 1676 that Captain Charles Middleton's Company of British Royal Marines

50. Continued.
landed in Virginia as part of what was called the Virginia Expedition. Their colors were Gold and Scarlet. Several years ago, while Major General John Archer Lejeune was Commandant, he asked the question: "Just what are the official Colors of the Corps?" Everybody scratched their heads and looked at each other blankly. They all thought that Gold and Scarlet was the answer but weren't quite sure, for no orders on subject could be found. Some time later General Lejeune, while reading a history called Britain's Sea Soldiers, saw the flag of Captain Middleton's Marines. "There are our Colors," said he, and sure enough there they were. An order was issued that - "Gold and Scarlet are the official Colors of the Marine Corps." (M.C. Manual, I - 57). See also in this connection [illegible] an Address of Major General Commandant Ben Hebard Fuller at Virginia Military Institute, in April, 1931. "The Marines have a little ribbon of Gold and Scarlet, their own colors, of which they are justly proud." (Admiral Hugh Rodman, U.S. Navy, in Leatherneck, January 10, 1925, p.2).

51. Edye, Hist., Royal Marines, I, 204.

52. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 23; Edye, Hist., Royal Marines, I, 215.

53. See Harpers, XV, p. 32; Hutchinson, Hist. Mass. Bay, 275; Neal, Hist. of New Eng., II, 388-400.

54. Neal, Hist. of New Eng. II, 429.

55. Barry, Hist., Mass., 478, 499-503; Coast Artillery Journal, February, 1923, p. 113; Hildreth, Hist., U.S., II, 88-89; See also Osgood, Amer. Col. in the 18th Century, I, 3-4; Hart, Amer. Nation, VI, 119-134; Neal Hist., New Eng., II, 429. The Weekly Post Boy of New York about 1688 blazes with calls "to all Gentlemen Sailors" etc. (Harpers, LXXXVI, pp. 824-826) and these were the Marines of the privateers.

56. Hart, Amer. Nation, VI, 119-134; Kingsford, Hist., Canada, II, 229-245; Phips sailed from Boston with "thirty-two vessels and 2,000 men." "Three of the ships were from New York with 240 soldiers." (Hildreth, Hist., U.S., II, 133-135); See also Cooper, Hist.,

56. Continued.
Navy, I, 20-21; Near, Hist., New Eng., 463-466; Spencer, Hist., U.S., I, 154; Harpers, XXXV, 483; Nav. Inst. Proc., June, 1932, 860.

57. Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., Amer., V, 137; Preble in N. E. Hist. & Gen. Reg., 1868, 393.

58. Paine, Ships and Sailors of Old Salem, 21.

59. The Massachusetts Government swept the coast from Piscataquah to Nova Scotia with 550 men, taking the town of Menis in 1704. (Minot's Hist. Mass. Bay, 70-71)

60. Paine, Ships and Sailors of Old Salem, 43-44.

61. Harpers, XC, 334-338.

62. Cooper, Hist., Navy, I, 30-32; Abbot, Nav. Hist., U.S., 1-20; Hart, Amer. Nation, VI, 136-153; See also Fiske, Old Va. & Her Neighbors, II, 293-294; on July 21, 1712, Col. William Dandridge, of Virginia, chartered his vessel to the governor of North Carolina to carry 20 soldiers to Charleston. (Tyler, Encyc., Biog. Virginia I, 154-155); Dewhurst, Hist. St. Augustine, 85.

63. Cooper, Hist., Navy, I, 31-33, 40; Spencer, Hist., U.S., I, 166; Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, II, 13-14; Lediard, Naval Hist., of England, II, 848-849; in 1704 an expedition against Port Royal was led by Church. (Channing, Hist., U.S., II, 531-544) "The fortress was named Anna-polis, in honor of Queen Anne, in whose reign it was conquered." (Historical Record of The [British] Marine Corps by Richard Cannon, 17); Nav. Inst. Proc., June, 1932, 861.

64. Hutchinson, Hist., Mass. Bay, II, 165-167; See also Hart, Amer. Nation, VI, 136-153; Cooper, Hist. Navy, I, 31-32; Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., Amer. V, 106; Minot, Hist., Mass. Bay, 70-71; Channing, Hist., U.S., II, 531-544;

65. Hart, Amer. Nation, VI, 154-157; Minot, Hist., Mass. Bay, 70-71; Trumbull, Hist. Conn. "400 Marines sent to Boston under Col. Nicholson and Capt. Martin for Port Royal Expedition." (Gillespie, Royal Marine Corps, 26-27)

66. Hutchinson, Hist., Mass. Bay, II, 180-182, pub. in 1797; Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 65; Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., Amer., V, 408; See also Kingsford, Hist., Canada, III, 97-100; "The first American Marines to shove their heads above the historic horizon were those who served on board our ships in early Colonial Days, for the colonies did have ships of their own." (Admiral Hugh Rodman, U.S. Navy in Leatherneck, Jan. 10, 1935, 2)

67. For history of Castle Island see "Coast Forts of Colonial Massachusetts" in Coast Artillery Journal, February, 1923, 106-122.

68. Osgood, Amer. Col., 18th Cent. I, 436-451.

69. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 67.

70. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 68; Nicolas, Hist. Rec., Royal Marine Forces, I, 15-16; Gillespie, Hist. Review, Royal Marines, 26, 31. Royal Marines, who had occupied Annapolis Royal since its surrender in 1709, joined this expedition. (Richard Cannon's Historical Record of the [British] Marine Corps, 19)

71. Cooper, Hist., Navy, I, 33-35; See also Hart, Amer. Nation, VI, 159-160; Gen. View of the Rise, Progress, Brill. Achiev. American Navy, 13-17; Lediard, Nav. Hist., England, II, 852 states Sir Hovenden Walker "sent two companies of New England men raised for the expedition to Annapolis Royal, to shift the garrison, and bring away the Marines in their stead" but the Governor "would not part with the Marines;" Nav. Inst. Proc., June, 1932, 861.

72. Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., Amer., V, 6.

73. Maclay, Hist., Amer. Privateers, 39; Cooper, Hist., Navy, I, 40.

74. Morison, Mar. Hist., Mass., 20; As late as the year 1713, Trumbull enumerates the shipping of Connecticut at only two brigs, twenty sloops and a number of smaller craft. The seamen he estimated at 120. On the other hand, the commerce of Massachusetts, as appears by the Custom-house returns, taken between the years 1714 and 1717, employed 25,406 tons of shipping, 492 vessels, and 3,493 sea faring persons. (Cooper,

74. Continued.
Hist., Navy, U.S., I, 357); The first schooner is said to have been built at Cape Ann, by Captain Henry Robinson, in 1714. Her name has been unfortunately lost. (Cooper, Hist. Navy, U.S., I, 35)

75. Official Letters of Spotswood, by Brock, I, 3, 75-80.

76. Hart, Amer. Nation, VI, 291-293; Fiske, Old Virginia & Her Neighbors, II, 338; Harpers, LXXXIX, 813-827 tells of "The Sea Robbers of New York," how pirates fitted out in guise of "patriotic privateers" and of "sea stealing."

77. For the pirates Bartholomew Roberts, Avary, Edward Low, Ned England, Howell Davis, Martel, Charles Vane, John Racham, Anstis, Evans, and Worley see Harpers, LXXV, 502-512. For pirates Thomas Tew, James Hoar, Thomas Mostons and Delancey see Harpers LXXXIX, 813-827; For Thomas Tew in New York in 1694 and John Hoar in New York in 1698, see Rufus Rockwell Wilson's New York Old and New, I, 136-137. See Nav. Inst., Proc., July-August, 1916, 1171-1192 for a well documented article on piracy. For Marines on a buccaneer or pirate vessel see the novel Yemassee in two volumes, published in 1835. In some places Captain Chorley's landing parties of the Yemassee were made up of seamen and at other times of Marines as at II, p. 150 Chorley left Bess Matthews and her father and mother "under charge of three Marines, well-armed." For accounts of Joseph Bradish, born at Cambridge near Boston on the Adventure in 1690, William Mews, Thomas Jones, Want or Wanton on the Old Bark, and Thomas Tew, see Nav. Inst. Proc., XXXVI, 429-430. For Ned Low, see Paine's Ships and Sailors of Old Salem, 46-47. For an account of the capture of the two sloops Ranger and Fortune by the British frigate Greyhound and the execution of twenty-six pirates at Newport, R. I. on July 19, 1723 see Peterson's History of Rhode Island and Newport, 64-65. On October 27, 1727 the Virginia Council considered execution of certain pirates. (Virginia Mag. of History and Biography, July, 1924, 237-245.)

78. MC Arch.

79. Nav. Inst. Proc., Sept. 1924, 1417.

80. Chapin's R. I. Priv. in King George's War, 6-7; Rhode Island Privateers in King George's War, 1739-1748, by Howard M. Chapin, reviewed in Nav. Inst. Proc., Dec. 1926, 2646-2648.

81. MC Arch.

82. Lodge, Short History English Colonies in America, 28.

83. MC Gaz, Dec. 1929, 286.

84. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers.

85. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers.

86. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers.

87. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers.

88. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers.

89. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers.

90. Particularly Volumes 77, 83, 87, 88, 91, 92.

91. British Home Office - Admiralty Correspondence, Vol.83.

92. British Home Office - Admiralty Correspondence, Vol.83.

93. Hart, "Admirals of the Caribbean."

94. Smollet's Works, IV, 445-469; Benjamin Franklin on July 6, 1781 wrote Vergennes that in 1739 "England ordered 3,000 men to be raised in America, and transports with provisions to be furnished." (Wharton, Dip. Corr., IV, 548); "even Penna. voted a contribution of money" to enlist troops. (Bancroft, Hist., U.S., III, 440-442)

95. For biography of Spotswood see Encyc. of Biog., Virginia, Tyler, I, 58; Campbell's Genealogy of the Spotswood Family of Scotland and America; Brock, Letters of Alex Spotswood, I, vii-xvi; born in 1676 (the year of the Virginia Rebellion) at Tangier (Morocco), arrived in Virginia in June, 1710. (Cooke, Virginia, 310-329); served as governor of Virginia, 1710 to 1723 and "1730 was appointed Postmaster General of the Colonies and in 1739 Commander of the forces raised" against Cartagena "but he died at Annapolis, June 7,

95. Continued.
1740." (Lempriere, Universal Biog. of Eminent Persons, Lord, II, 660; See also Fiske, Old Virginia and Her Neighbors, II, 370; Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., Amer. V, 267; Hildreth, Hist., U.S., II, 240); "He was buried on his estate of Temple Farm, near Yorktown, Va.;" in "1781 the mansion at Temple Farm was known as the Moore House;" the "surrender of Lord Cornwallis was negotiated in the house which had sheltered the last years of this noble governor." (Fiske, Old Va. & Her Neighbors, II, 389-390); on November 11, 1896, a stained glass window was unveiled in the Powder Magazine in Williamsburg to the memory of Governor Spotswood who in 1716 had erected it. (Wm. & Mary College Quarterly Hist. Mag., V, Jan., 1897, 213); "His grandson Alexander married the daughter of Gen. Wm. Augustus Washington, the niece and legatee of Gen. George Washington." The "blood of the elegant and vigorous Spottswood flowed in the veins of some of our nation's heroes." His granddaughter Dorothea Dandridge married Patrick Henry. In 1730, Spotswood was made Postmaster General for the Colonies and it was he who appointed Benjamin Franklin Post Master for the Province of Pa. Alex. Spotswood held this position till 1739 when he was "appointed commander-in-chief of the Colonial Troops in the expedition fitted out against Cartagena. He died, however, on the eve of embarking at Annapolis, June 7, 1740." (Pa. Soc. of Colonial Governors, I, (1916), 139-149); He visited Williamsburg and then repaired to Annapolis with the intention of embarking with the troops, but he died June 7, just before the embarkation, and Colonel William Gooch was appointed chief in his place. Colonel Spotswood married, in 1724, Ann Butler Brain, daughter of Mr. Richard Brain, of London, and they had two sons, John and Robert Spotswood, and two daughters, Ann Catherine, who married Bernard Moore, and Dorothea, who married Captain Nathaniel West Dandridge. John, the elder son, married in 1745, Mary, daughter of William Dandridge, and had issue two sons, General Alexander Spotswood and Captain John Spotswood, both of the army and of the revolution, and two daughters, Mary and Ann. The descendants of Governor Spotswood are now represented in numerous families of distinction. (Tyler, Encyc., Virginia Biog., I, 59); Major John Henley Higbee, U.S.M.C., born September 11, 1839, on his mother's side was descended from the Henley and Dandridge families of Virginia, Leonard Henley, his grandfather having married Elizabeth Dandridge, sister of Martha Washington. (Powell, Officers who served in Civil War, 199);

95. Continued.
Mrs. Fuller, wife of Major General Commandant Ben Hebard Fuller, is a descendant of Alexander Spottswood, as is Brigadier General Randolph Carter Berkeley and Brigadier General Theodore Porter Kane. At the north end of the bridge over the Rappahannock River on Jefferson Davis Highway at Falmouth, near Fredericksburg is the following sign: "No. 157-z SPOTSYLVANIA COUNTY Area, 413 square miles." "Formed in 1720 from Essex, King-and-Queen, and King William, and named for Alexander Spotswood, Governor of Virginia, 1710-1722. The Battles of Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, The Wilderness (partly) and Spotsylvania were fought in this county."

96. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers; See Note 101; "in 1740 three additional regiments were raised in America and assembled at New York. All the officers, excepting the captains of companies, who were colonists nominated by the provinces, were appointed by the Crown, and Colonel Spotiswood of Virginia, was Colonel-Commandant of the whole". (Colburn's United Service Mag. and Nav and Mil Journal, May, 1874, pp. 6-7); The captain of one of the Virginia companies was Lawrence Washington, the half-brother of George Washington, Lawrence, who was then twenty years of age, distinguished himself in the capture of the fort at Boca Chica, and was also in the deadly assault on San Lazaro."James Innes, citizen of New Hanover County, N. C., served as a captain in the Cartagena Expedition under Colonel William Gooch. (Official Records of Robert Dinwiddie, I, 125, 403-405); North Carolina Booklet, Oct., 1904, IV, 3-17; In 1740, 8 companies of infantry went from Philadelphia under Captains appointed by the Governor, to join Admiral Vernon in the West Indies. Similar companies also went from Virginia and Carolina. All to rendezvous at Jamaica. (Watson, Annals of Phila. & Pa., I, 257); Recruiting officers for Philadelphia were Capts. Palmer, Thomas Lawrence, Samuel Love; at Perkiomen, Marcus Huling; Manatawny, Owen Evan; Limerick, Alexander Woodrop and James Hamilton. (Scharf and Wescott Hist., Phila., I, 209); "These [British force at Cartagena] were augmented by four battalions of Americans." (Colburn's United Service Mag., May, 1874, DXLVI, 6-7); On arrival at Hispaniola further reinforcements were embarked in the shape of two of the newly raised regiments of American Marines, and a few other Colonial levies. (Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 75);

96. Continued.
Cooke, Virginia, 310-329; "Gooch assumed command of the 4 colonial battalions transported to join the British troops under Admiral Vernon in an attack on Cartagena in New Granada." (Tyler, Encyc., Biog., Va., I, 60-61); "In 1740, on account of the unexpected death of Major-General Alexander Spotswood, Governor Gooch assumed command of the four Colonial battalions transported to join the British troops under Admiral Vernon in an attack on Cartagena in New Granada. He was absent about a year, during which time Rev. James Blair, president of the College, acted as governor." "Gooch was seriously wounded, and contracted the fever from which many of the English troops died. Upon his return to Virginia in July, 1741, he resumed the government of the colony." (Tyler, Encyc. Biog., Va. I, 60-61; See also William Allen, Amer. Biog., Dict., 385, which includes the anecdote - when a slave in Williamsburg bowed to him in the street he bowed in return. He said, "I cannot suffer a slave to exceed me in good manners."); "A regiment commanded by Colonel Gooch, which was employed in North America dated from December 29, 1739 and was disbanded in 1742. It was raised for Colonial defensive service, and may have been formed from some of the independent companies of foot which at that time garrisoned our western possessions. Gooch was Governor of Virginia, where his regiment known as "the Old Americans," principally served. In Jamaica under date of 1742 we find eight of these independent companies, at New York four, in Bermuda one, at Providence one, and some had been raised for South Carolina, for they are 'ordered to be disbanded' shortly afterwards." (Royal United Service Institution, Jan., 1887, but the quoted information is erroneous for Gooch's Marines were raised to attack Spanish colonies not for defense," and the writer has probably confused them with Oglethorpe's Regiment raised a few month's earlier); For matters pertaining to Gooch, see Official Letters, Robert Dinwiddie, I, ix, 2, 376, 403, 405, 414; Va. Mag. Hist. and Biog., XXXII, Oct., 1924, 358-359; id, XXXII, Jan., 1925, 58-61 in which he wrote "it pleased Providence to wound me, and save my life, for if I had not been confined I verily believe I should have been numbered with those that died by sickness. I am still weak in my knees and very lame."

97. "'Camlet' was a rough material, a mixture of cotton and wool. This clothing was ordered to be made in England." (Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 88).

98. Gillespie, Hist. Review, Royal Marine Corps, 39-47; Nicholas, Hist. Records, Royal Marine Forces, I, 18; Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 73; Colburn's United Service Mag., May, 1874, DXLVI, 6-7; From "Cannon's Records," and the "Gentleman's Magazine" of 1741, we learn that their field officers and subalterns were appointed by the King, and that their Captains of Companies were nominated by the American Provinces; "It was supposed that from climate, the natives of the American Continent were better calculated for the service upon which they were destined than Europeans." "Three Regiments of Foot," says the contemporary Gentleman's Magazine "of a thousand men each, are raising with all speed in our American colonies, and will consist of natives or of those enured to the climate. Their general rendezvous is to be at New York, where the Royal Standard is set up." (Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 38).

99. See Note 92.

100. MC Arch.

101. Among the many Virginians serving in Gooch's Marines was Laurence Washington, the eldest brother of George Washington. The Scientific American, Supplement, of January 22, 1910, 58 carries the information: "One thing lends interest to the history of this old castle and Vernon's memorable siege of Cartagena in 1741 is that Lawrence, eldest brother of George Washington, was the ranking captain of colonial troops under Vernon, and that without doubt he took part in the attack on this old fort, which ended in the defeat of Vernon's effort to capture Cartagena. Colonel Washington died after his return to Virginia from a disease contracted while engaged in that campaign." An illustration on page 57, of the above magazine, of the Battlements of Fort San Felipe de Barajas carried a caption that "It is presumed that troops were led by Col. Lawrence Washington in this attack." Colonel Cyril Field the eminent Historian of the British Marines and author of Britain's Sea Soldiers criticizes the above article in the Scientific American of March 19, 1910. All authorities, however, agree that Laurence Washington was at Cartagena. Here are a few: "A force of Virginians commanded by Gooch" and "Captain Laurence Washington, brother of Washington, accompanied the troops." (Cooke, Virginia, 310-329). Laurence Washington served in the unfortunate

101. Continued.
expedition against Cartagena. (Benjamin, Naval Academy, 15-16). Laurence Washington obtained the commendation of both Vernon of the Navy and Wentworth of the Army. (Hutchinson, III. Hist., etc., 42-44). "Among them was a certain young officer named Lawrence Washington, who enjoyed the special confidence of Admiral Vernon." (Ford, Ad. Vernon, 166-168); Laurence Washington "served under Admiral Vernon in his operations against the Spanish posts on the shores of Central American waters." (Harper's Mag., XVIII, March, 1859, 442); Cooper in his History of the Navy wrote that Lawrence Washington, brother of George "served in that celebrated attack against Cartagena" under Admiral Vernon. Wilstach in his Potomac Landings refers to this subject as follows: The colonial estate of Porto Bello survives. "Its name recalls the adventures of several Potomac River lads early in the 18th century. They were Laurence Washington, Edwin Coade, and William Hebb, midshipmen in the British Navy. They were attached to the command of Admiral Vernon and fought with him at Porto Bello and Cartagena." When they returned William Hebb called his place Cartagena (now Hatton's Corbet); Edwin Coade named his place Porto Bello; and Laurence Washington, Mt. Vernon. Wilstach corrected that statement, (in a letter to Miss Elizabeth L. Hebb, great-great-granddaughter of William Hebb) and in his Maryland Tidewater for it was William Hebb, and not Coade, who named his plantation on the St. Mary's,Porto Bello for which see following Note 102.

102. "On the west side of Saint Mary's River are two houses of considerable though undefined age. One is called Cartagena, the other is called Porto Bello, two names which at once recall the Spanish-English war early in the eighteenth century and the part played in the West Indian campaign by Several Potomac River young men who enlisted in the British colonial forces and fought at Cartagena and Porto Bello under Admiral Vernon. Thomas cites the names of three of these Potomac youths: Laurence Washington from the Virginia side of the river, and William Hebb and Edwin Coade from the Maryland side. When these young men returned to their river to settle in civil life we know that Laurence Washington named his home Mount Vernon after their commander, and Thomas says that Hebb called his place Porto Bello and Coade named his place Cartagena.

102. Continued.
This last fact seems to be controverted by a unique bit of testimony in the little brick house itself, a feature of it that I have never seen repeated elsewhere. Cartagena is a small story-and-a-half brick house. Into its front, obviously at the time it was built, were set, on either side the front door, the initials W and H, each letter some three feet high in black head bricks. The Piney Point neighborhood, in which Cartagena stands, originally Evelynton Manor, granted Captain George Evelyn in 1637, was widely settled by the Hebb family of which several were named William, and it seems obvious that this house was built by the William Hebb who fought in the West Indies, put his own initials curiously but not unnaturally in the structure of his house, and named it after his own great adventure. Cartagena has succumbed to the more modern name of Hatton's Corbett. It is believed that the William Hebb buried beneath the handsome table tomb at Porto Bello is the presumed builder of both these old houses."(Tidewater Maryland, by Paul Wilstach, pp.310-311); William Hebb gave his plantation on the St. Mary's River the name Porto Bello and named one son Vernon. "William Hebb was with Admiral Vernon in 1741 in the West Indies Expedition and attack on both Porto Bello and Carthagena in Central America. In Annapolis on file is a document showing him the owner or rather the 'lessee of my Lord's Land' for 3 Lives, a sort of entailment. This property he named 'Porto Bello' and after the Revolution his son became the owner outright to it. A part of the 'Porto Bello' estate was originally taken from West Saint Mary's Manor, one of the manors reserved by Lord Baltimore and was only leasehold until after the Revolution when by the act of 1781 all of Lord Baltimore's ground rents were confiscated and the fee simple interests therein became vested in the lessees, and so this property was passed from son to son in the Hebb family, for three generations. William Hebb named the creek nearby Carthagena and a property known as 'Carthagena' near 'Porto Bello'.His daughter Ann lived on after her marriage to a Mr. Fenwick, The family tradition is that William Hebb owned both estates and from the above facts it would seem to be the truth. His son born in 1743 he named Vernon out of courtesy to his Admiral and every generation since there has been a Vernon Hebb. This son became an officer in the Rev-

102. Continued.
olution and bore the titles of Capt. Lt. Col., and Colonel. He married Anna Hopewell granddaughter of Sir Hugh Hopewell of England. William Hebb passed away May 25, 1758 and is buried in the family burying ground at 'Porto Bello'. There is a large, high, flat tablestone to mark the spot and it is said the family sent to England for it. 'Porto Bello' is beautifully situated on the St. Mary's River opposite St. Mary's City which was the capital of Maryland before it was moved to Annapolis." (Miss Elizabeth L. Hebb, daughter of Col. Clement Dorsey Hebb, to Major E. N. McClellan, 5 July 1932, MC Arch);"Clement Dorsey Hebb was born July 10, 1828 on the estate, of his father Col. William Hebb, called 'Snow Hill,' near Haymarket, Va. * * * He was the great-grandson of William Hebb who served as an officer of Gooch's Marines, in 1741 under Admiral Vernon and was at the attack on * * * on Cartagena in Central America. Upon his return to his home on the St. Mary's River, William Hebb named his estate 'Porto Bello' and later named his son Vernon for Admiral Vernon. Thus Clement D. Hebb was a direct descendant of an officer in the first Marine Corps of America." (id) Colonel Clement Dorsey Hebb was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Corps 14 March 1856; promoted First Lieutenant 7 May 1861, Captain 26 July 1861, Major 12 January 1876, Lieutenant Colonel 18 April 1880, and Colonel 18 August 1889. (Hamersly, Gen. Reg., 882; See also M. Almy Aldrich, Hist. USMC, 236; Collum, Hist. USMC, 438); Colonel Hebb retired 10 July 1892 and died 23 June 1897. (Collum, Hist. USMC, 438). "He was ordered by the Secretary of the Navy in September 1890 to report at Headquarters as Acting-Colonel-Commandant as Colonel-Commandant Charles G. McCawley was going on six months leave before retiring." (Let. Miss Hebb, 5 July 1932, MC Arch); "Ordered to Head Quarters to take command of the Marine Corps September 23 (?) 1890. Assumed command September 30(?). Relieved from command February 10, 1891. * * * Placed on the retired list July 10, 1892. Died June 23, 1897 at Washington D.C." (History of Col. Hebb signed by Major and A&I George C. Reid, 7 Aug. 1897 in Let. Press Bk., No.6, pp.273-274, MC Arch); Marine Corps Muster Rolls from September, 1890 to January 31, 1891 are headed: "Washington, D.C., Station under the command of Col. C. D. Hebb, Comd'g." (MC Arch); "Colonel Clement D. Hebb was born in Virginia, but was appointed a Second Lieutenant in the Marine Corps of the United States, from California, March,

102. Continued.

1856. After going through his preliminary training at Headquarters, and at the Marine Barracks at Philadelphia, where a large force of Marines was always then kept, he was ordered in command of the Marine Guard of the Sloop-of-War Falmouth, and served in the Brazils for three years. During the year 1859 he was attached to the Preble of the Paraguay Expedition. After returning from the South American Station, Lieutenant Hebb served at Headquarters; at Marine Barracks, Pensacola; and at Headquarters again in 1860-61. These were trying times and people had to declare their sentiments very plainly. Lieutenant Hebb was ordered, with a detachment of Marines, to occupy Fort Washington, on the Potomac to prevent that Fort from falling into the hands of the rebels. In June, 1861 he was commissioned a First Lieutenant, and after a short term at the Marine Barracks at Boston, was ordered to the frigate Santee of the West Gulf Squadron. He was promoted to Captain while thus serving, and being detached served at the Marine Barracks at Norfolk, Virginia, and at Philadelphia. During a portion of the year 1865 he served with the battalion of Marines at Morris and Folly Islands, South Carolina. During 1864 and 1865 he was on duty at New York, Portsmouth, New Hampshire, and at Washington; was attached to the flagship Colorado of the European Squadron, from April 1865, to August 1867. Captain Hebb was, after this date, in command of the Marine Barracks at Washington; the Marine Barracks at Mound City; and again at Washington, D.C. Thence he went to the Marine Barracks at Boston, and was transferred to the command of the Marine Barracks at Pensacola, where he remained from October, 1869, to June, 1872. In 1872-73 he was stationed at Annapolis, afterwards serving in the flag-ship Pensacola, Pacific Squadron. From July 1874, to May 1880, he commanded the Marines at the Mare Island Navy Yard, California. Commissioned Major 1876. From May 1880, to February, 1885, commanded Marines at Boston Navy-Yard; commissioned Lieutenant-Colonel April, 1880 commanded Marines at Navy-Yard, Portsmouth, New Hampshire, 1885 to August 1889. Commissioned Colonel August 1889, and stationed for a few months at League Island, Philadelphia. March 1, 1890, appointed to the command of the Marine Barracks at the Navy-Yard, Boston,

102. Continued.
Massachusetts. Colonel Hebb was ordered by the Honorable Secretary of the Navy on September 7, 1891, to Washington, D.C. to command the Marine Corps while the Commandant (McCawley) was sick, and until his retirement and successor was appointed in February, 1891, when he returned to the Boston Marine Barracks." (Officers Who Served in the Civil War, Major William H. Powell and Medical Director Edward Shippen, 193.) I am "the daughter of the late Colonel Clement Dorsey Hebb, Acting Colonel Commandant of the Marine Corps at the time of President (Benjamin) Harrison, 3nd. My father was the great grandson of an officer, William Hebb, evidently in 'Gooch's Marines,' for he and his friend Lawrence Washington served under Admiral Vernon. In the family annals these two young men are referred to as being 'sort of Ensigns,' in the expedition to Porto Bello and Cartagena. My forebear thought so kindly of Admiral Vernon that he named his only son Vernon and there has always been in the Hebb family a Vernon Hebb in each generation since." (Elizabeth L. Hebb to Editor, Marine Corps Association, 20 January, 1930, M.C. Arch.). In Brumbaugh's book there are 2 fac-similes of leased land to Wm. Hebb: One, the 29th April, 1742 - 157 acres of which lays in Eldon surveys except 70 acres. Vernon Hebb in possession, son of said Wm for 3 ~~Lives ?~~ Wm. Hebb dead. Hopewell Hebb, 60 years, healthy (his widow). Priscilla Hebb gone to England. Annual rent --------. no fine due--no-improvements. Badly -----,well timbered, lays levil - soil stiff and good. (This is numbered 13) two Leased to Wm. Hebb 20 Jan. 1741 for 52 acres and contains 52 acres. Vernon Hebb in possession. Wm. Hebb dead, Hopewell Hebb 60, healthy. Priscilla Hebb gone to England. ----- soil stiff and poor. (This is numbered 14.) William Hebb sold Porto Bello about 1815. (Miss Hebb's information). "From St. Inigoes my canoe bore me to the opposite side of the river, where I called upon Mr. J. Edwin Coad, a descendant of a colonial family and a gentleman of the old school. Mr. Coad is an antiquarian and well posted on the history of the section. Adjoining his place was the manor of the Hebb family. 'Col. Hebb' said Mr. Coad 'sailed with the Marylanders and Virginians, among whom was Captain Lawrence Washington, in the expedition of Admiral

102. Continued.
Vernon against Spanish America in 1741. You will recall that Great Britain in 1740 had declared war against Spain for interfering with British trade in the West Indies and Admiral Vernon was dispatched to the south with a great fleet and about 25,000 sailors and soldiers under Wentworth. Volunteers from the colonies joined the expedition and with them went Colonel Hebb and young Washington who was appointed a Captain of Infantry. Porto Bello was taken and Carthagena bombarded but the British were repulsed with immense loss and the expedition proved disastrous. Washington called his home Mount Vernon in honor of the Admiral and Hebb gave the same name to his son. The creek which you can see over there was named by Colonel Hebb, Carthagena, and his place Porto Bello titles which they bear to the present day.' " (From an Account of Ancient St. Mary's, by R.B.M. Wash. Star, August 10, 1895.) The direct line of the Hebb Family: Thomas Hebb; William Hebb (who served under Admiral Vernon and named his estate Porto Bello); Vernon Hebb; William Hebb; Colonel Clement Dorsey Hebb, U.S. Marine Corps; Hopewell Hebb, brother of Miss Elizabeth L. Hebb. (Miss Elizabeth L. Hebb to Major McClellan, 25 July, 1929, M.C.Arch.).

103. See Note 102.

104. See Notes 96 and 105.

105. Official Records of Robert Dinwiddie , I, 125, 403-405.

106. Watson's Annals of Philadelphia and Pa., Vol. I, 257.

107. Hist. Phila., Scharf, & Wescott, I, 209.

108. Tyler wrote that "in 1740, on account of the unexpected death of Major-General Alexander Spotswood, Governor Gooch assumed command of the four Colonial battalions transported to join the British troops under Admiral Vernon." He "was absent about a year, during which time Rev. James Blair, president of the College, acted as governor." Gooch "was seriously wounded, and contracted the fever from which many of the English troops died. Upon his return to

108. Continued.
Virginia in July, 1741, he resumed the government of the colony." Colonel Gooch wrote that "it pleased providence to wound me, and save my life, for if I had not been confined I verily believe I should have been numbered with those that died by sickness. I am still weak in my knees and very lame." See also Note 96.

109. "So named from 'Old Grog', a nickname given to Admiral Vernon, in allusion to his wearing a grogham cloak in foul weather. He is said to have been the first to dilute the rum of the sailors." "A mixture of spirit and water not sweetened; hence, any intoxicating liquor." (Webster's New Inter. Dict.); See also pp. 42,57-58 and Notes 116, 171.

110. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers.

111. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers.

112. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers.

113. Gillespie, Hist. Review, Royal Marine Corps, 39-47; Nicholas, Hist. Record, Royal Marine Forces, 18; Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 73-88; Colburn's United Service Magazine, May, 1874, DXLVI, 6-7; "the Admiralty had actually sent the fleet to sea without providing it with a trained body of Marines." (Ford, Admiral Vernon, 125-126).

114. Gillespie, Hist. Review, Royal Marine Corps, 39-47; Nicholas, Hist. Rec., Royal Marine Forces, I, 19; Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 73-88; See also Trumbull, Hist., Conn., II, 265-269.

115. Nav. Inst. Proc., April, 1931, 509.

116. Nav. Inst. Proc., March, 1921, 377-378; See also Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers.

117. Ford, Admiral Vernon, 149-150; See also Vernon to Pattin, 10 Nov. 1740, (Etting Collection of the Manuscript Department of the Hist. Soc., of Pa., in Philadelphia).

118. Etting Collection of the Manuscript Department of

118. Continued.
the Hist. Soc., of Pa., in Philadelphia.

119. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 290.

120. Colomb, Naval Warfare; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 290.

121. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 290.

122. Colomb, Naval Warfare; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 290.

123. Ford, Admiral Vernon, 149-151; Smollett wrote that at Dominica, Ogle found "Admiral Vernon with his Squadron and the regiment of North Americans who were 'quartered ashore'". (IV, 445-469).

124. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 290.

125. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 290.

126. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 290.

127. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers; This paragraph of Colonel Field was written from the viewpoint of the arriving Fleet of Ogle. As a matter of fact we have already seen that Gooch's American Marines had already joined Vernon.; Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 88; This is no doubt an error for Gillespie, Hist. Review, Royal Marine Corps, 62-63, shows a list as follows:

Gooch's	1st Bn...	16	sgts..	11	cpls..	3	dmrs..	pvts.	129
"	2nd Bn...	10	"	7	"	3	"	"	90
"	3rd Bn...	10	"	7	"	3	"	"	79
"	4th Bn...	6	"	7	"	1	"	"	107
	Total	42	"	32	"	10	"	"	405

128. British Home Office and Ad. Corr., Vol. 92; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 290.

129. British Home Office and Admiralty Correspondence, Vol. 92.

130. H. O. Corr. with Ad. Vol. 92; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 290.

131. Home Office Corr. with Admiralty, Vol. 87, Feb. 14, 1741; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 291.

132. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 291. "Colonial American Marines also embarked on foreign service as, for instance, in Vernon's Expedition against Carthagena in 1741." (Admiral Hugh Rodman, U.S. Navy in Leatherneck, January 10, 1925, p. 2).

133. Hart, Admirals of the Caribbean, 143; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, p. 291.

134. Smollet's Works, IV, 445-469; Roderick Random by Smollett.

135. Colomb, Naval Warfare, 339; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 291.

136. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 291.

137. Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., Amer., VIII, 291; Colomb, Naval Warfare, 339-340.

138. Colomb, Naval Warfare, 339-340; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 291.

139. See Colomb, Naval Warfare; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 291.

140. See Colomb, Naval Warfare; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 291.

141. Colomb's Naval Warfare pp. 339-340 cited by Field in Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 76.

142. Fort St. Joseph also crumbled.

143. Britain's Sea Soldiers, by Field, See also Ford, Admiral Vernon, 154-167.

144. "This may have been Laurence Washington, elder brother of George, who, according to a writer in the Scientific American, was senior Captain of the Colonial troops, under Vernon, at Cartagena. He died after his return to Virginia of disease contracted there. (Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 78; Scientific American, January 22, 1910, 57, 58 (Sup), and March 19, 1910, 187 (Sup); North Carolina

144. Continued.
Booklet, October, 1904, IV, 3-17). See also Note 101.

145. Smollett's Works, IV, 445-469; See also Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 78.

146. Smollett's Works, IV, 445-469; At daybreak, April 9, 1741, 500 Grenadiers, supported by a thousand Marines, some Jamaican levies, advanced against the enemy's lines in front of the fort. These were followed by a body of Americans, with wool-packs, scaling ladders, and hand grenades. The Spaniards were intrenched and their works were "over-awed by St. Lazar." The attackers drove the Spaniards from the trenches into the fort. Efforts to scale the walls of St. Lazar failed. (Gillespie, Hist. Review, Royal Marine Corps, 49-50; See also Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, ', 81-84; see Trumbull, Hist., Conn., II, 265-269; Grant, British Battles, I, 570-573; Hildreth, Hist., U.S., II, 376-382; Clowes, Royal Navy, III, 71; Roderick Random, Smollett's Works, I, Intro. p. XIII.)

147. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929.

148. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929.

149. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers.

150 British Home Office and Admiralty Correspondence, Vol. 91; N.B: The above mentioned 2 Regts had not been intended to form part of the Expedition but had been put on board to complete the complements of the men-of-war since seamen could not be obtained.

151. British Home Office and Admiralty Correspondence, Vol. 87.

152. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 293.

153. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 293.

154. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 293; See pp. 55-56 and Note 165.

155. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 293.

156. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 293.

157. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 293.

158. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 293.

159. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 294.

160. July, 1741, from the Gentleman's Magazine.

161. Hart, Admirals of the Caribbean; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 294.

162. Hervey, Nav. Hist. Gr. Br.; M.C. Gaz., Dec., 1929.

163. Colomb, Naval Warfare; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929.

164. Mahan, Influence of Sea Power upon History, 261.

165. Field to McClellan, 9 January, 1926, M.C. Arch.; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 295.

166. Mahan, Influence of Sea Power Upon History, 261.

167. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 295.

168. Mahan, Inf. of Sea Power upon History, 261; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 295.

169. Lodge, Short Hist. Eng. Colonies, 28; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 295.

170. Smollett's Roderick Random, II, 84-95.

171. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 296. See also pp. 42,57-58 and Notes 110 and 116.

172. M.C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, 296.

173. It is a melancholy truth, which, however, ought to be told that a low, ridiculous, and pernicious jealousy subsisted between the land and sea officers during this whole expedition; and that the chiefs of those were so weak or wicked as to take all opportunities of thwarting and manifesting their contempt for each other, at a time when the lives of so many brave fellow-subjects were at stake, and

173. Continued.
when the interest and honour of their country required the utmost zeal and unanimity. Instead of conferring personally, and co-operating with vigour and cordiality, they began to hold separate councils, drew up acrimonious remonstrances, and send irritating messages to each other; and while each of them piqued himself upon doing barely as much as would screen him from the censure of a court-martial, neither seemed displeased at the neglect of his colleague; but, on the contrary, both were in appearance glad of the miscarriage of the expedition, in hope of seeing one another stigmatized with infamy and disgrace. (Smollett's Works, IV, 445-469); "I have myself heard it said, and meant too, 'A messmate before a shipmate; a shipmate before a stranger; a stranger before a dog; but - a dog before a soldier.'" (Laughton, Studies, Naval Hist. Biog. 346-347); The attack on Cartagena "failed largely through the want of harmony which existed between" Vernon and Wentworth. (Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., Amer., VIII, 292; See also Tobias Smollett, Roderic Random, and Compendium of Voyages, or "An Account of the Expedition against Cartagena"; Hart. Amer. Nation, VII, 101-102); Captain Marryatt in one of his stories speaking of this attack on Cartagena said: 'The Army thought the Navy might have beaten down the stone ramparts ten feet thick and the Navy wondered why the Army did not walk up the same ramparts which were thirty feet perpendicular.' The attempt failed because of lack of Army and Navy cooperations and because of the stoutness of the defense. (Nav. Inst. Proc., Sept. 1924, 1, 418; Mahan, Influence of Sea Power Upon History, 260-261); See in this connection Nav. Inst. Proc., Jan., 1925, 2-3, 8. This expedition produced an interesting legal case, Lieut. Frye of Marines being illegally sentenced by court-martial sued in civil court and won verdict in 1746. (Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 316-316).

174. "More than a thousand men died in a day for several days. Of nearly 1,000 men from New England, not 100 returned." Of 500 men from Massachusetts, 50 only returned. (Trumbull, Hist. Conn., II, 265-269); Gordon wrote that "scarce one fifty" of the Massachusetts troops returned; Gordon, The American Revolution, I, 110; The Mass. troops were paid off and dismissed

174. Continued.
October 24, 1742, and only 50 returned. (Shattuck, Hist. Concord, Mass., 68-70); Hildreth, Hist. U.S., II, 376-382; "of the recruits from the Colonies, nine out of ten fell victims to the climate and the service." (Bancroft, Hist. U.S., III, 442).

175. Letter, February 16, 1925, Colonel Cyril Field, Royal Marine Light Infantry to Major Edwin North McClellan, U.S. Marine Corps. The letter also stated that Captain William Meyrick was senior Captain in "Wynyard's" and received a captain's commission, September 4, 1735. He was Captain in "Wynyard's" on November 30, 1739.

176. Colonel C. Field, British Marines, to Major McClellan, January 9, 1926, M.C.Arch.

177. British Home Office and Admiralty Correspondence, Vol. 88.

178. British Home Office and Admiralty Correspondence, Vol. 91.

179. "The selection of Santiago as an objective was governed by three reasons. First, it would be valuable as a base for further operations against Cuba. Such operations were under consideration and Governor Shirley of Massachusetts was already offering land grants to prospective settlers in Cuba. Second, Santiago was strategically located between the Spaniards in Cuba and the French in Haiti whose entry into the war was imminent. Third, and most important of all, it was urgently necessary to check the depredations of Spanish privateers operating from Santiago." (Nav. Inst. Proc., April 1931, 510.)

180. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1939; Nav. Inst. Proc., April, 1931, 510.

181. Hildreth, Hist., U.S., II, 376-382; "Attempts were made upon both Cartagena and Santiago de Cuba, in the year 1741 and 1742, but in both wretched failures resulted; the admiral and the general quarrelled, as was not uncommon in days when neither had an intelligent comprehension of the other's business."(Mahan, Influence of Sea Power Upon History, U.S., II, 376-382).

182. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929; "they anchored in a broad bay, which they called Puerto Grande, from its size, but is now known by its previous name of Guantanamo." (Francesco Tarducci, Life of Christophe Columbus, I, 315); On July 18 the fleet arrived at Guantanamo, which had recently been reconnoitered and found undefended, and which was at that time known to the English as "Walthenham Harbour." Hervey, in 1779, described Guantanamo as "a large and secure haven, which protects the vessels that ride in it from the hurricanes which are so frequent in the West Indies." (Hervey, Naval History of Great Britain, 1779, quoted by Nav. Inst. Proc., April, 1931, 510). Called Cumberland in 1797. (Morse Amer.Gazetteer). See Note 15.

183. Vice Admiral P. H. Colomb's Naval Warfare, 346-348, quoting Entick at times; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929; "when in 1741, Guantanamo was a British Base of operations against the Spaniards in nearby Santiago, one of the American Colonials" was "Laurence Washington, brother of the first President of the United States." (Washington Star, Feb., 24, 1931 quoting National Geographic Society Bulletin); "Among the troops was the remnant of the American regiment, in which served Lawrence Washington." (Nav. Inst. Proc., April 1931, 510).

184. British Home Office and Admiralty Correspondence, Vol. 88.

185. M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929; Nav. Inst. Proc., April, 1931, 510.

186. Nav. Inst. Proc., April 1931, 511, citing Hervey, Naval History of Great Britain, 1779.

187. Colomb, Naval Warfare, 346-348; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929.

188. British Home Office and Admiralty Correspondence; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929.

189. Nav. Inst. Proc., April, 1931, 511, citing H. W. Richmond, The Navy in the War of 1739-48.

190. Colomb, Naval Warfare, 346-348; M. C. Gaz., Dec., 1929, p. 297; Nav. Inst. Proc., April 1931, 511.

191. British Home Office and Admiralty Correspondence, Vol. 87.

192. Hervey, Naval History of Great Britain, 1779, quoted by Nav. Inst. Proc., April 1931, 512; General Shafter stated after the war that, while en route to Cuba in June, 1898, he read an account of Wentworth's failure and that it convinced him that his sole chance of success would lie in the very impetuosity of his attack. (Alger, The Spanish American War).

193. Trumbull, Hist. Conn.

194. Gordon, American Revolution; Shattuck, Hist., Concord, Mass.; Bancroft.

195. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 88-89; "1742. The Island of Rattan, in the Bay of Honduras, taken possession of, and placed in a state of defence." (Hist. Rec. of the Br. Marine Corps, Richard Cannon); "The Bay Islands (Roatan, Bonaco, etc.) were seized by the British" etc. (Auto. Charles Biddle, 32); A large force under Vernon were at Jamaica in January, 1742. Trade in logwood and commercial intercourse with South America made it desirable to send a force to "Rattan, an island in the Bay of Honduras." "An establishment having been formed there in the early part of the year (1742), it was determined in a Council of War to send a force of 50 Marines and 200 Americans, under Major Caulfield, in order to place the island in a state of military defence." "On the 23d of August the troops reached Port Royal on the south side of the island, where they formed a camp and erected Fort George to defend the harbor, as well as Fort Frederick on the western part of it. A proportion of the Americans, who were papists, formed a plot to render the settlement abortive, and to rise upon the Marines. Her Majesty's ship the Litchfield, then in the harbor, hearing the alarm-guns, instantly landed her party of Marines, who, with those on shore, soon checked the daring mutiny, secured the delinquents, and preserved the settlement to the British Crown." In September, 1742 orders recalling Vernon arrived and he was succeeded by Ogle. (Richard Cannon's Historical Record of the Marine Corps. (Royal Marines).)

196. Cooper, I, 40-41; Maclay, Hist. of Amer. Privateers, 39.

197. William Dandridge, of Virginia, commanded the South Sea in Admiral Vernon's attack on Cartagena. (Tyler, Encyc., Biog., Va., I, 154-155).

198. Jameson, Priv. and Piracy in Col. Period, 347-353.

199. Chapin's R.I. Priv. in King George's War, 6-7; Review of Chapin's Rhode Island Privateers in King George's War, in Nav. Inst. Proc., Dec., 1926,p.2647.

200. M.C. Arch.

201. Chapin's Rhode Island Privateers in King George's War, 1739-1748, 17-20; Privateering and Piracy, 276, 473, 503, 571. The very interesting journal of Captain Norton's sloop Revenge is in Ibid, 380; many other privateering narratives will be found, mostly in court proceedings, in this volume. Instructions for privateers at different periods are in Law and Custom of the Sea, I, 197, 218, 236, 252, 410, 502, II (Navy Records Society, I), 403-435; Privateering and Piracy, 347. (Allen, Mass. Priv. in the Rev.,9); "As time went on and the American colonists grew in numbers, they took an increasing interest in privateering. The more enterprising and adventurous American merchants and seamen engaged in this pursuit whenever England was at war with other nations. American newspapers recount the fortunes of these sea-rovers." (Allen, Mass. Priv. in the Rev., 9); "In time of war the Colonial Governors, along with their judicial functions, were given authority to issue letters of marque or privateer commissions. During the war of 1739 with Spain, such a commission was granted to Captain Benjamin Norton, of Newport. This long document differs little from those of the fifteenth century, in contrast with the much briefer form used a generation later, during our Revolution. It is here quoted" in part: "Richard Ward, Esq. Governor and Commander-in-Chief in and over His Majesty's Colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations in New England * * * And Whereas Benjamin Norton, Mariner, and John Freebody, Merchant, both of Newport in the Colony aforesaid have equipped, furnished, and victualled a sloop called the Revenge of the burthen

201. Continued.
of about 115 tons, whereof the said Benjamin Norton is Commander, who hath given bond with sufficient sureties. * * * Given under my Hand, and the Seal of said Colony, at Newport aforesaid the Second day of June, Anno Dm 1741," etc. (Allen, Mass. Priv. of the Rev., 10-12, stating that the "original letter, with accompanying documents, in Massachusetts Historical Society collections.")

202. Hart, Amer. Nation, VI, 261-264; Trumbull, Hist., Conn., II, 265-269; 500 men enlisted, partly in South Carolina, and partly "in Virginia." This "gave Oglethorpe 1,200 men & Indians." (Hildreth, Hist. U.S., II, 376-382); Dewhurst, Hist., St. Augustine, 89-97 gives an interesting account. Richard Cannon in his Historical Record of the [British] Marine Corps, 32, wrote Admiral Vernon in 1742 sent "500 men to the assistance of General Oglethorpe, in South Carolina, and to repel the menaces of the Spaniards against the infant colony of Georgia." On p. 50 Cannon wrote: "The Corps which had been formed in 1737 by Colonel James Oglethorpe for service in Georgia and South Carolina, was disbanded in 1749. It had not been ranked in the number of regiments of infantry in the Official Records of the Army, although in some publications of that period it was numbered the Forty-second regiment, according to its seniority and the date of its formation." See also Gillespie, Royal Marine Corps, 66.

203. Hart, Amer. Nation, VI, 261-264; Trumbull, Hist., Conn., II, 265-269; William Dandridge of Virginia commanded the South Sea in Oglethorpe's attack on St. Augustine. (Tyler, Encyc. of Biog., I, 154-155); See also Cohen, Notes of Florida, 17.

204. Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., Amer., V, 12, 136,145. On June 4, 1744 the Governor of Rhode Island publicly read at Newport His Majesty's declaration of war against the French. (Chapin's R.I. Priv. in King George's War, 10-11).

205. MacDonald, Last Siege Louisburg, 5-7; See also Gordon, Hist. Amer. Rev., I, 110; See Cooper, Hist. Navy, I, 41-45 gives a fine account of this.

206. MacDonald, Last Siege Louisburg, 5-7; 300 from N.H., Minot, Hist. Prov. Mass. Bay, p.75, 500 from Conn., and 300 from R.I., who arrived after surrender and ten provincial vessels of Connecticut and Rhode Island; Barry, Hist. Mass., 141-147, wrote enlisted strength was Mass. 3,250; Conn. 516; N.H., 304; R.I., 300 (arrived after surrender), and colonial naval force was three frigates of 20 guns each, a snow of 16 guns, a brigantine of 12 guns, and five sloops, all provided by Mass., Conn., and R.I., one armed sloop each and a small vessel from N.H.; Kingsford, Hist. Canada, III, 313, states Mass. had supplied 3,170 of total 4,070; Huidekoper, Sieges Louisburg, states strength as Mass., 3,300; Conn., 516, N.H., 454 and R.I., 150, arrived after surrender; Drake, Taking of Louisburg, 66-70, states that "Pepperrel said that one-third of the whole force came from Maine."; Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist. Amer., V, 410-411, shows Mass., 3,250, Conn., 500, N.H., 300; R.I., 300; Hart, Amer. Nation 1-17, shows Mass., 3,300, Conn., 516, N.H., 454, R.I., 150. Rhode Island resolved to "raise a regiment of 150 men, exclusive of officers, and that the Colony sloop Tartar be fitted out with a compliment of 90 men, exclusive of officers." (Peterson, Hist. of R.I., and Newport, p. 95).

207. MacDonald, Last Siege Louisburg, 5-7; Nav. Inst. Proc., June, 1932, 861.

208. Hart, Amer. Nation, 1-17; For "calls to 'Gentlemen Sailors' in 1745" published in Post Boy of New York see Harpers, XC, p. 340. See Bowen, The Sea, Its Hist. and Romance, II, Frontispiece, for an illustration of "The Expedition of New England Forces in the Expedition Against Cape Breton, 1745."

209. Huidekoper, Sieges, Louisburg; 500 British Marines were present. (Gillespie, Royal Marine Corps, 77).

210. Chapin's Rhode Island Privateers in King George's War, reviewed in Nav. Inst. Proc., Dec., 1926, p. 2648.

211. Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., Amer., V, 410-411; MacDonald, Last Siege Louisburg, 5-7; "The troops were under the command of Brigadier-General William Pepperel, a native of Piccataway, and Colonel of American militia." (Richard Cannon, Hist. Rec., British

211. Continued.
Marine Corps, 36); "Mighty Louisburg, today Cape Breton, Nova Scotia." Preacher Whitefield gave Pepperell a motto for the Expedition - "Nil Desperandum Christo Duce." (Hammond's Quaint Historic Forts of America, pp. 2,5).

212. Drake, Taking of Louisburg, 1745, 60-70.

213. MacDonald, Last Siege Louisburg, 5-7; id., 15-16 shows there were 16 armed vessels and 90 transports, 240 guns, in the Provincial Fleet.

214. MacDonald, Last Siege Louisburg, 15-16; in Royal United Service Institution, Journal, 1783, 51, Major Knolly states that "5,000 American volunteers, reinforced by 1,000 Marines" under Pepperrell "convoyed by Commodore Warren," captured Louisburg; See also Channing, Hist. U.S., II, 546-548, which discounts American valor and discipline; A large French brig was captured on May 19, 1745, and the frigate Renommee was driven back to France by the American cruisers. (MacDonald, Last Siege Louisburg, 5-7); "After the 20-gun ship Shirley (Captain Rouse) had completed her work in the Louisburg Expedition in May, 1745 she separated from her consorts and captured eight French vessels." (Maclay, Hist. Amer. Priv. 39); for an illustration of "Capture of Louisburg," see Catalouge, MacPherson Collection (Naval Section), A. G. H. MacPherson, 21. "By indefatigable labor the British Marines, and the American Provincials, succeeded in effecting an entrance into the harbor." (Richard Cannon's Hist. Rec. British Marine Corps, 36).

215. Barry, Hist. Mass., 153; See also Drake, Taking of Louisburg, 130-131; The MacPherson Collection (Naval Section), p. 21; "These bold and successful adventurers astonished, not only Europe, but America herself; for brave, hardy, enterprising and valiant as they had proved themselves to have been, in their wars with the French and Indians, they had yet to learn that their strength could be carried abroad successfully, in distant naval enterprises." At the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, Louisburg was restored. (Cannon's Hist. Rec. British Marine Corps, 37; Gen. View, Rise, Progress, and Brilliant Achievements,

215. Continued.
Amer. Navy, 13-17); In these operations, in the Cartagena Expedition of 1741, and in the defense of Nova Scotia; New England lost three or four thousand of her young men. (Trumbull, Hist., Conn., II, 294).

216. Maclay, Hist. Amer. Priv., 39-42; "A Boston ship belonging to Josiah Quincy, had by exposing hats and coats on handspike above her rail, allured a heavier Spanish ship into a surrender." (Winsor, Narr, & Crit. Hist., Amer., V, 149); For "New York Colonial Privateers" by Thomas A. Janvier mentioning privateers Prince Charles, Snow Dragon, Greyhound, Grand Diable, and William, see Harpers, May, 1845, p. 333; about 1745 there were the New York privateers Prince Charles, Snow Dragon, Greyhound, Grand Diable and William. (Harpers); "Massachusetts seamen took a leading part in the Louisburg Expedition of 1745." (Allen, Mass. Priv. in the Rev., 12).

217. See Maclay, Hist., Navy, I, 10-13.

218. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 132, quoting Gomer Williams, Liverpool Privateer and Liverpool Slave Trade.

219. Field, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, II, 422, cited in Paullin, Navy, Amer. Rev., 53.

220. Esek Hopkins Let.Bk., Intro. by Alverda S. Beck, 8, citing Notary Public, V, St. Arch. of R.I.; Sheffield in his "Privateers" says that the privateer Wentworth sailed in 1741 under Capt. Esek Hopkins (Chapin's R.I. Privateers in King George's War, 207).

221. Esek Hopkins Let. Bk., Intro. by Alverda S. Beck, 8, citing letter from Moses Brown to Tristam Burges, Providence, Jan. 12, 1836, R.I. Hist. Soc.

222. Esek Hopkins Let. Bk., Intro. by Alverda S. Beck, 8, citing R. I. Colonial Records.

223. Hopkins Papers (Photographs), pp. 177-179 in Navy Library; Field, State of Rhode Island & Providence Plantations, II, 422, cited by Paullin, Navy, Amer. Rev., 53; Moses Brown of Providence on February 23,

223. Continued.
1757 wrote that "Captain Esek Hopkins has taken and sent in here a snow of about 150 tons," etc. (Field, Esek Hopkins, 11-12). Esek Hopkins who, in 1775, became the first Commander-in-Chief of the American Fleet Commanded a privateer in the year 1757. At New London in November of 1757 there was a sale of "sundry Prize Goods sold at Vendue, taken New London by Captain Esek Hopkins Condemned in the court November, 1757, of Vice Admiralty of Connecticut." He was given credit for 184 pounds, 2 shillings and 7 pence on October 2, 1758.

224. Peterson, Hist., R.I. and Newport, 94-95; Page 67 of Mr. Peterson's book carries information concerning a disastrous explosion that occurred on September 17, 1744 at Newport aboard two privateers at the wharf of Colonel Malbern (Malborn), causing the deaths of William Coddington, Mr. Grant, John Gidley and others and injuring many.

225. Harper's, XC, Feb. 1895, 341; For Castor and Pollux see Chapin's R.I. Privateers in King George's War, 8-9.

226. Harpers, XC, 340.

227. Calendar 1925 of State Street Trust Company, Boston, Mass.; See also Morison, Mar. Hist., Mass., 20; painting of this battle is in possession of Mass. Hist. Soc.; "A ms letter telling how the letter of marque Bethel, of Boston, captured a Spanish ship of greatly superior force, in 1748, and a picture of the scene, are in the possession of the Society (Mass. Hist. Soc. Coll.). The letter has been printed in the U.S. Nav. Inst. Proc., October, 1919, 1695." (Allen, Mass. Priv. in the Rev., 12).

228. Harper's XLIV, 522; See Watson's Annals of Phila. and Penna., pp. 438-439 for story of the great raft ships constructed at Philadelphia including the Columbus and the Baron Renfrew.

229. Hart, Amer. Nation, VII, 122; Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist. Amer. V, 8; "Among the many reductions which took place during 1748 consequent on the General Peace, the Ten regiments of [British] Marines were

229. Continued.
disbanded in November of that year the officers of which were placed on half-pay." (Cannon, Hist. Rec. British Marine Corps, 46).

230. Channing, Hist. U.S., II, 569; "a conference of the colonies was called at Albany in 1754, which had been commanded through the Governor of New York by the Board of Trade. Boston rejected the Albany Plan and on December 14, 1754, the Legislative rejected it." (Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., Amer., V, 150, 205); "Shirley had not attended the Congress. He had left Boston in June, 1754, on the province frigate Massachusetts, with the forces under John Winslow to build a fort on the Kennebec." (Id., 151).

231. D.A.R. Mag.; "Seventeen hundred and 55, Georgius Secundus was then alive, - Snuffy old drone from the German hive, That was the year when Lisbon-Town Saw the earth open & gulp her down, And Braddock's Army was down so brown Left without a scalp to its crown." (The Deacon's Masterpiece; or The Wonderful One-Hoss Shay, by Oliver Wendell Holmes).

232. Wilstach, Potomac Landings, 324-325; the Marine Corps Expeditionary Forces traversed part of the same route covered by Braddock when in 1922 they conducted maneuvers at Gettysburg and 1924 in their maneuvers at Antietam; By the middle of the 18th century horse racing "developed many jockey clubs, not least famous among them being the jockey clubs of Fredericksburg, Dumfries and Alexandria, where the then Colonel George Washington was a frequent visitor." (Wilstach's Tidewater Virginia, 98). Duelling in Colonial Virginia was rare. "In 1765 John Scott, the 18-year-old son of the rector of Quantico Church" sent a challenge to John Baylis. Scott's second tried to patch quarrel up but ended by killing Baylis. (Mary Newton Stanard, Colonial Virginia, etc. p. 159). "In the highlands behind Quantico is a charming old brick colonial derelict called Belle Ayr, home of the Ewells. One of the daughters of this family was married to Dr. James Craik, General Washington's life-long friend & physician, and another daughter was married" to "Parson" Weems, the author of the Cherry Tree Story. (Wilstach's Tidewater Virginia).

233. "The joke took, to the no small amusement of the British Corps. Brother Jonathan exclaimed it was nation fine, and in a few days nothing was heard in the provincial camp but the air of Yankee Doodle." (quotation from Albany Statesman, edited by N. H. Carter, in John Philip Sousa's National, Patriotic and Typical Airs, 19); Harpers Encyc. U.S. Hist., X, 471-472; Watson, Annals and Occur., N.Y. City and State, in Olden Time, 242-243.

234. 10,000 of the seamen in the British Navy in 1756 were of Amer. birth. From the year 1754 to 1762 there was raised by Massachusetts 35,000 men; and for three years successively 7,000 men each year. (Walsh, in his Appeal, 131, quoted in Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., Amer., V, 154); Neff, Army and Navy of America, 166-167; "American privateers were active during the Seven Years' War." (Allen. Mass. Priv. in the Rev., 12).

235. Official Records of Robert Dinwiddie, II, 448-449, 501-502, 519-520, 540-541, 578; See standard works for "Royal American Regiment"; "The scarlet jackets of the 'Royal American'" (Cooper, Last of Mohicans, Chap. XVIII); For material resources, See Colonial Background Amer., Rev., 82-83; 62d or "Royal American Regiment of Foot" raised in 1755, but number changed in 1756 or 1757 to 60th; motto, given to it by Wolfe at Quebec was "Bold and Swift;" now known as "The King's Royal Rifle Corps, 60th Foot" (Wallace, Reg. Chron., Ch. I); Journ. Soc. Army Hist. Res., II, 108; Hutton, Henry Bouquet, 39; Fortesque, Hist., Br. Army, II, 333, 578; Parkmen, Montcalm and Wolfe, II, 93, 139; R.U.S.I., LVII, July-Dec. 1913, 1192; File AG 332.2 (11-24-24) Misc. -D, Amer. War Dept. Off. Adjt. Gen., Nov. 25, 1924.

236. Scharf and Wescott, Hist. of Phila., I, 250-251.

237. Mahan, Influence of Sea Power Upon Hist. 293-295.

238. Huidekoper, Sieges, Louisburg; See also MacDonald, Last Siege Louisburg.

239. See in this connection Kingsford, Hist. Canada, IV, 141-142; Nav. Inst. Proc. June, 1932, 861.

240. Field, Britain's Sea Soldiers, I, 136-137.

241. Kingsford, Hist., Canada, IV, 331-347; Trumbull Hist., Conn., II, 400-402; Channing, Hist., U.S., II, 584-585; Nav. Inst. Proc., June, 1932, 862.

242. Kingsford, Hist., Canada, IV, 341-347; Trumbull, Hist., Conn., II, 400-402, wrote that Amherst built a "sloop of 16 guns and a radeu, of 84 feet in length to carry 36 4-pounders"; Channing, Hist., U.S., II, 584-585, states Amherst "was obliged to build boats to transport his troops and to combat a fleet of French vessels. By the time this was accomplished the season was too far advanced to permit of further pursuit. Amherst's failure left Wolfe to struggle alone against nearly the whole remaining force of New France"; Nav. Inst. Proc. June, 1932, 862.

243. "In the Campaign of the next year (1759) Mass. and Conn. put at least 1/6 of all their males able to bear arms into the field." (Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., Amer., V, 154; See also Hutchinson, Hist. Mass. Bay, III).

244. Hart, Amer. Nation, VIII, 261-263.

245. Grimshaw, Hist., U.S., 88-89.

246. Thomas Jones, Hist. New York, I, 24-25; Paullin, Navy Amer. Rev., 218; Scharf and Wescott, Hist. Phila., I, 253-254.

247. Harper, Encyc., U.S. Hist., 338, for privateers lying at Port-au-Prince, Haiti, in April, 1757, See Jameson, Privateering & Piracy, Colonial Period, 571-572.

248. Peterson, Hist., R.I., and Newport, 94-95.

249. For an account of an American officer in the "Expedition against the Spanish in Cuba," see Journal Amer. Hist. III, 1st Quarter, 1909, 113-114 - The Article is headed "Log of an American Marine in 1762, on a British Fighting Ship. Original Journal of Lieutenant William Starr, narrating his adventures with His Majesty's Fleet in the Expedition against the Spanish in Cuba bombarding Ancient Havana from a man-of-war before America was a Nation. Life of

249. Continued.
the Soldier at Sea." Lieutenant William Starr returned to his family on November 30, 1762, holding the rank of First Lieutenant in the Sixth Company of the First Connecticut Regiment, which was commanded by General Israel Putnam. His diary mentions embarking on Amherst May 19, 1762 and then on board "transport ship Swallow" on 27 at New York; of the fleet, including Intriped, Chesterfield and transports sailing with 3,000 troops, June 11, 1762; of "part of Ye N.Y.Regt" being captured by French ships; "Shooting at Mark on Nut Island at New York;" "Cape Samana, on ye N.E. part of Hispaniola"; Cape Nicolas on the N.W. part of Hispaniola; "Bite of Leogan."; of "Connecticut troops" and "Provincial" troops; and of helping to capture "St. Deaga" (Santiago), Cuba in August, 1762. Lieut. Starr was lost at sea some time during the years 1763-1764.

250. Allen, Mass. Priv. of the Rev., 12-13 citing the following, "Privateering and Piracy, 581-585. See Hough, Reports of Cases in the Vice Admiralty of the Province of New York. In Emmons, Statistical History of the U.S. Navy, 124-126, is a list, doubtless incomplete of colonial privateers."

251. Hart, Amer. Nation, VII, 272-273.

252. Lamb, Journal During Late Amer. War, 6-7; The colonies had taken a splendid part in these 8 years of war as often as pecuniary or military (naval) aid had been required, they had been generally given. "Very powerful assistance was given." (Grimshaw, Hist. U.S., 88-89); See also Morrison, The Amer. Rev., xi-xii; Barry, Hist. Mass., 164-165 cites Franklin's Wks and Writings of John Adams, 6; "It was on the banks of the Mississippi, that uncontrolled impulses first unfurled the flag of a Republic." When the French heard of cession of their country, "an Assembly sprang into being," and they entreated France not to sever them from her. (Bancroft, Hist., U.S. VI, 217). At the peace of 1763 the fame of England was exalted throughout Europe above that of all other nations. She had triumphed over those whom she called her hereditary enemies, and retained half a continent as the monument of her victories. Her American dominions stretched without dispute from the Atlantic to the Mississippi,

252. Continued.
from the Gulf of Mexico to Hudson's Bay; and in her older possessions that dominion was rooted as firmly in the affections of the colonists as in their institutions and laws. The ambition of British statemen might well be inflamed with the desire of connecting the mother country and her transatlantic empire by indissoluble bonds of mutual interest and common liberties. (George Bancroft, Hist. U.S. V, 78).

253. Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist., Amer., V, 148.

254. Maclay, Hist., Amer. Privateers, 43-44.

255. Hildreth, Hist., U.S., II, 528-529.

256. Frothingham, Siege of Boston, 233; See also Everett, First Battles of Rev., 11-12; Neff, Army and Navy of America, 197.

257. Stedman, Hist. Amer. War, I, 39-40.

258. See New York Times, June 28, 1931 reporting a celebration of these Resolves at Stratford Hall, Westmoreland Hall, Va.

259. Barry, Hist., Mass., 331-353; Wildman, Founders of America, 53-55; Field, Esek Hopkins, 31; See also Hildreth, Hist., U.S., II, 544; See letter of Commodore Hood, in Halifax, October 15, 1768, to George Grenville, pub. in "George III and the American Revolution," Mumby, 217-221, regarding this affair and his drastic criticism of the Governor as well as his low opinion of the American "lower class" and "demagogue." "In the northern colonies of America, many of their principal merchants were engaged in clandestine trade" (Stedman, Hist., Amer. War, I, 13); "finally the collector's boat was carried in triumph, and burnt before the door of the owner of the sloop." (Stedman, Hist. Amer. War, I, 63); "The case was defended by John Adams on the ground that a law had been broken which the colony had no share in the making. It was the beginning of the end - an end that was contested at Concord and Lexington, and led to an uprising of the Colonies, equally oppressed by offensive and arbitrary acts of the mother country, in which they were not per-

259. Continued.
mitted to have a voice or representation." (Wildman, Founders of America, 53-55).

260. Clowes, Royal Navy, IV, 3.

261. Maclay, Hist., Amer. Priv., 44; See Paine, Joshua Barney, 8-9, quoting Boston Gazette and Country Journal, September 25, 1769, for another incident. "The old patriots" claim "that the first act of popular resistance to English oppression that occurred in the country" was the destruction of the Liberty in Newport Harbor, in 1769. (Tuckerman, Silas Talbot, 39); "The first overt act in the great drama which separated the Colonies from Great Britain and which finally resulted in the American independence" was the destruction of the Liberty at Newport in 1769. (Peterson, Hist. of R.I. and Newport, 199-200).

262. Morrison, Amer. Revolution, 1764-1788, xxxii.

263. Leake, Memoir, Gen. John Lamb, 53-57; See also "New York, Old and New," by Rufus Rockwell Wilson, I, 213-233; "It would be matter for surprise, however, were the average New Yorker, born and bred, to discover acquaintance with the 'New York Tea Party', which, without the cover of the night or Indian disguise, sent one of the laden tea-ships out of our harbor back to England, and upset the cargo of another into the waters of the bay; or had he so much as heard of the Battle of Golden Hill, where in the first blood of the Revolution was spilt, two months earlier than the Boston Massacre, and more than five years before the Lexington affair." (Charles H. Haswell, Reminiscences of an Octogenarian, 1-2); In Neeser's Despatches of Shuldham, p. 109 we read that on February 5, 1776 the Rebels "removed all the guns upon the lower Batteries up to what is called the Liberty Pole near the Barrack" in New York.

264. Barry, Hist., Mass., 407-409; See also Snow, Hist. Boston, 278; Hutchinson, Hist. Prov. Mass. Bay, III, 268-269.

265. Lamb, Journal, During Late Amer. War, 15; Hutchinson, Hist., Mass. Bay, III, 271-272; See also Murdock, "The

265. Continued.
19th of April, 1775," 14-15; Barry, Hist., Mass. 414-416; Everett, First Battles, Rev., 15; Carrington, Battles, Amer. Rev., 31; Becker, The Eve of the Rev. II, 128-129; W.D. Cooper's Hist. of North America (1814); Stedman, Hist., Amer. War, I, 76-77; The Boston Herald, March 7, 1926 carried an article "Boston Massacre took place 156 years ago," and published an illustration from an Old Print. See Ballou's Pictorial, February 3, 1855, 72, for illustration.

266. Field, Esek Hopkins, 31; See Washington Star, April 9, 1925 for an illustration of this "first armed uprising," against "the despotic Governor Tryon. - In the Battle of Alamance, the Colonists were defeated and Tryon hanged seven patriots as rebels."

267. Arnold in his Hist., of R.I.; I, 351, calls this the real "Lexington of the Seas;" Spear in his Hist., Our Navy, I, 2, calls this the "Saltwater" Lexington and the "First Fight afloat."

268. Hildreth, Hist., U.S., II, 561; Harper, Encyc., U.S., Hist., IV, 36 and X, 336; Hart, Amer. Nation, IX, 21-22; Maclay, Hist., Amer. Priv., 49-51; Cooper, Hist., Navy, I, 59-61; Nav. Inst. Proc., XXIII, No. 3, 470-471; and Niles Reg., October 17, 1818, 127, contain interesting descriptions of this battle; also for description of battle; D.A.R. Mag., November, 1924; "Welcome Arnold Greene," Kingsford Hist. of Canada, V, 318-320; Field, Esek Hopkins, 32-34. "The Prov. Plan. for 250 years," 58. "You, Abraham Whipple, on the 10th of June, 1772, burned his Majesty's Ship the Gaspé, and I will hang you at the yard arm," wrote the British Commander-in-Chief Sir James Wallace to Whipple who replied - "Always catch a man before you hang him." (De Koven, John Paul Jones, I, 100-101).

269. Kingsford, Hist., Canada, V, 328-329; Maclay, Hist., Amer. Priv., 50-51; Cooper Hist., Navy, 62,63; Spear, Hist. Of Our Navy; Stedman, Hist., Amer. War, I, 87; See id., 111-112 for insurrections in Rhode Island and New Hampshire late in 1774. A letter written in June, 1774 shows George Washington disapproved of Boston Tea Party. (Wash. Star, May 4, 1932).

270. Harper's, LXXIII, 240-241. At Portsmouth, New Hampshire, on Wednesday, the fourteenth of December [1774], just after letters were received from Boston, members of the town committee, with other Sons of Liberty, preceded by a drum and fife, paraded the streets till their number grew to four hundred, when they made their way in scows and "gondolas" to the fort at the entrance of the harbor, overpowered the few invalids who formed its garrison and carried off upwards of one hundred barrels of powder, that belonged to the province. The next day, without waiting for a large body on the road from Exeter, John Sullivan, who had been a member of the Continental Congress, led a party to dismantle the fort completely; and they brought away all the small arms, a quantity of shot, and sixteen light pieces of artillery. (George Bancroft, Hist. of U.S., VII, 183-184). For insurrection in Rhode Island and in New Hampshire late in 1774 see Stedman, Hist. Amer. War., I, 111-112.

271. Gettemy, True Story of Paul Revere, 64-68; See also Stedman, Hist. Amer. War., I, 111-112.

272. Jones, Hist., N.Y. During Rev. War, I, 475-476; See also Colonial Background of Amer. Rev., 63; Stedman, Hist. Amer. War, I, 102; Scharf and Wescott, Hist., Phila., I, 281; For an illustration of this event and "Carpenter's Hall" see Wash. Star, April 13, 1925.

273. Lamb's Hist. New York City, II, 28; Bradford's Pennsylvania Journal continued the device of the divided snake and the motto Unite or Die, from 1774 to October 1775. (Greenwood's John Manley, 171); "The emblem of the rattlesnake was a colonial thought, often employed before the Revolution, to warn the mother-country that the colonies would resist if the attempt were made to impose on them. It was figuratively used in Franklin's Pennsylvania Gazette as early as 1751; in 1754 the figure of the severed snake and the motto, Unite or die, were used to insist upon the necessity of colonial union against the French and Indians, and in 1775 this snake was made the head of the Pennsylvania Journal, and the idea of the resemblance between the colonies and the rattlesnake was often brought up in the newspapers. Paul Jones' flag may have been Franklin's own contrivance." (Scharf

273. Continued.
and Wescott, Hist., Phila., I, 302-303.) "The rattlesnake was a favorite device with the colonists, and its origin as an American emblem deserves investigation as a curious feature in our national history. The choice of this reptile as a representative of the colonies had attained a firm position in the regard of the colonists long before difficulties with Great Britain were anticipated. As early as 1751, an account of the trial of Samuel Sanders, an English transported convict, for the murder of Simon Gerty, occasioned the following reflections, which were published in Franklin's paper, the Pennsylvania Gazette" regarding the rattlesnake, etc.: "This idea of rendering the rattlesnake a means of retribution for the wrongs of America could scarcely have been forgotten, and received a new value three years afterwards, when, to stimulate the colonies to a concert of measures against the Indians, the device of a snake cut into eight parts, representing the colonies then engaged in the war against the French and Indians, was published at the head of the Gazette, with the motto, Join or die. This device was adopted by other newspapers in the colonies, and in 1775 it was placed at the head of the Pennsylvania Journal, the head representing New England, and the other disjointed portions being marked with the initials, N.Y., N.J., P., M., V., N.C., S.C., and G. The motto then was Unite or die. These matters kept the rattlesnake in the memory of the provincials, and may have led to its early adoption." John Holt, who edited the New York Journal, was one of the most fearless of printers; having in 1774 discarded the arms of the king as an ornamental heading for his paper, and substituted the device of a snake cut into parts, with Unite or die for a motto, he about this time issued the snake joined and coiled, with the tail in its mouth, forming a double ring; within the coil was a pillar standing on Magna Carta, surmounted with the cap of Liberty. (Mrs. Martha J. Lamb, Hist. of City of N.Y., II, 38). Bradford's Pennsylvania Journal continued the device of the divided snake and the motto Unite or die! from July, 1774, to October, 1775. (Greenwood's Captain John Manley, 171). Arousing the American Colonies to concerted measures against the French and Indians, Franklin's Pennsylvania Gazette of May 9, 1754, appeared

273. Continued.
with the device of a snake divided into eight pieces and the motto, Join or die! The pieces were labeled N.E.; N.Y.; N.J.; M.; V.; N.C. and S.C., and the device, with an account of some late depredations by the enemy, was repeated at the time in several other Colonial papers. After the passage of the Stamp Act in 1765, a single half-sheet, printed in September at Burlington or Woodbridge, N.J., and entitled the Constitutional Courant, appeared in the streets of New York. It had practically the same device of a snake facing to the right and divided into eight parts, the head, with its darting tongue, thrown well up, and a label floating from its jaws, with the words, Unite, all, and conquer; while below it was the motto, Join or die! (Greenwood's Captain John Manley, 170).

274. Century Dict. and Cyc., IX, 670. On May 20, 1906, the Marine Band, and a company of Marines, proceeded to Charlotte, N.C. for the purpose of participating in the celebration of the anniversary of the Mecklenberg Declaration of Independence, May 21 to 23, 1906. A model camp was established and the detachment remained encamped there from May 20 to 24, 1906 when it returned to its station at the Marine Barracks, Washington, D.C. "The services rendered were eminently satisfactory to the authorities, and were the subject of a letter of thanks and commendation from the mayor of Charlotte." (An. Rep., Maj.Gen.Comdt., 1 Oct. 1906, published in An.Rep. Sec. Navy, pp. 1088-1089.)

275. For example see Nav. Inst. Proc., September, 1917 that describes service of Nicholas Biddle.

276. "The vessels which were first equipped by the American colonists during the French War were privateers. Afterwards, several of the Colonies maintained public armed ships, and, even before the Revolution, the organization of their officers and crews were sufficiently well developed to enable the officers of the brig Boston, in 1772, to wear a uniform, the details of which were minutely prescribed, even to the wig with two curls." The uniform was the same for all grades and it was a scarlet coat and a white waistcoat decorated with gold lace at the button holes, snowy nether garments, and a laced cocked hat. After the Revolution the uniform was changed to green - that is the color of the coat. (Benjamin, Naval Academy, 16-17); Towards

276. Continued.
the close of the year 1774, there were one hundred and fifty sail of vessels, in the whaling service, belonging to the Island of Nantucket, and the greater part of them at sea. (Macy, Hist., Nantucket, 79, 80, 81; See also Douglas - Lithgow, Hist. Nantucket, 366-367); "at the commencement of the Revolution, the colony of Massachusetts employed more than 13,000 tons, and more than 4,000 seamen," in the whale fishery. (Gen. View, Rise, Prog. Brill. Achieve. Amer. Navy, 13-17); "The soldiers of 1775-1781 were not dificient in military skill and ready appliance of the known engineery and principles of war." (Carrington, Battles, Amer. Rev., 3); The very nature and situation of the settlements of American colonists developed "the seafaring habit and training of the early colonists." (Francis J. Reynolds, "U.S.Navy", 9); From the very start American privateers had swarmed over the seas, and this implied the existence, at the outbreak of the Revolution, of an element of naval preparedness in the American Colonies, which has not been appreciated. The fact was, there were no hardier and more intelligent seamen in the world than the Americans of 1775. Their ships had been on all the oceans navigated in those days, and American designers were already noted for the speed and stanchness of their ships. American sailors had also learned the lessson of experience in fighting on the seas, which made them especially well equipped for warfare against the commerce of a superior naval power. Just as, on land, the experience of the "French Wars" was of great value to American officers, from Washington down through all grades; so, on the sea, the experience of naval warfare in these same "French Wars" was for American seamen a preparation for their successful raids upon British commerce. (Nav. Inst., Proc., December, 1926, p. 2647). In the merchant service there were 15,000 seamen and 198,000 tons of shipping (Humphrey's Works, 49, cited in Clark, Nav. Hist., I, 13-14); Contrasted to this true viewpoint is T. O'Connor who, in 1815, wrote in his Hist. War of 1812, 33,: "With a stone and a sling only, America commenced the War of Independence. Without arms, without clothing, without money, and without credit, we took the field. * * *" Captain Charles Biddle was one of the many examples of American seamen that formed part of "American Naval preparation for war." In 1764 served as second

276. Continued.
mate on an American snow, Captain John Luckart Nesmith, that cruised to the Bay of Honduras for logwood. Touching "at the Mosquito Shore" they hired an Indian as a striker "to supply the crew with fish, turtle and maniti or pacon, which is excellent eating." While here they had two clashes with "a brig belonging to New York." Captain Biddle described one of the many duels that occurred at the Bay of Honduras. It occurred in 1769 between "the celebrated [Benedict] Arnold" and "one of the Bay men. It was said that Arnold frightened his antagonist, who agreed that he should fix the distance, by naming five yards." Biddle sailed from the Delaware Capes on December 10, 1769 in command of a ship and in due time arrived at Port-au-Prince, Haiti. Sailed from there February 2, 1770 and landed at Cape Nicola Mole on the 4th. Biddle anchored at Petit Guave, Haiti, in command of the Charming Nancy on December 16, 1772. He carried "an officer of the [Italian] Army" to Port-au-Prince. While there a French frigate took his ship but matters were fixed and he sailed on March 28, 1773. He was back at Port-au-Prince in the Charming Nancy in May 1773. Biddle refused the order of a French frigate to haul down his pennant. Other trouble with the French occurred. Biddle made another cruise on the same ship to Haiti, sailing from there in February, 1774. Another cruise to Haiti was made in a brig "leaky as a basket," and another in a large schooner to Cape Francois. Another voyage to Haiti in the brig Swift which was sold there. Purchased the brig Greyhound and returned to Haiti arriving at the Mole, April 4, 1775, having on board Captain Stephen Decatur." (Auto. of Charles Biddle, 15-71).

277. Lamb, Journal, 217; Belknap, Hist., New Hampshire, I, 358-359; John Adams to Mrs. Mercy Warren, on July 20, 1807, pub. in Coll. Mass. Hist. Soc., IV, 5th Ser., 332-339; Barnes, Short Amer. Hist., Part 2,3; See Laws and Ordinances of New England to the Year 1800, in Neal, Hist., New England, II, 683-704; N. Y. Gaz., July 3, 1775, pub. in Moore, Diary, Amer. Rev., I, 106; Barry, Hist., Mass., 164-165; See also Barry, Hist., Mass., 164-165 citing Parson, Life of Pepperrel, 144, and Everett, Orations, 366-368.

278. Winsor, Narr. & Crit. Hist. of Amer., VIII, 323-324.

279. Coll. Mass. Hist. Soc., IV, 5th Ser., 332-339.

280. See Lucas, Hist. Canada, 1763-1812, 258; Hart, Amer. Nation, IX, 5; "The Revolution was effected before the war commenced. The Revolution was in the minds and hearts of the people." (Moore, Annals, Amer. Rev., 217-223); See also Barnes, Short. Amer. Hist., Part 2,3; O'Connor, Hist., War of 1812, 7; address of Secretary of Navy H. A. Herbert, August 10, 1896 in gov. printed pamphlet.

281. M. C. Gaz., June, 1924, 97; On both land and at sea the American revolution began with citizens "rising en masse - the movement of the people in their original and elementary capacity, resisting oppression, and annoying the oppressor by any means that were within their reach whenever an opportunity for action presented itself." (Frost, Book, Navy, II, 15-17); See also Morse, Annals, Amer. Rev. 217-223,246, 247; Morrison, Amer. Rev. xi-xii.

INDEX FOR CHAPTER II
Volume I.

MC CLELLAN, EDWIN N.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED
STATES MARINE CORPS.